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INTERNATIONAL EDUCATIONAL MEETINGS

A large group of educators representing more than thirty different nations gathered in Toronto during the second week in August and perfected the organization of the World Federation of Education Associations, which has been in process of development since the meeting four years ago at San Francisco when a federation of the educational associations of the world was first projected. The Toronto meeting discussed many issues, chief among them being the problem of devising more effective means of promoting international understanding and universal peace through education. A World Committee on Peace through Education was appointed, and steps were taken to incorporate the federation and to secure an endowment which will make possible the maintenance of a permanent secretariat with a staff of trained officers.

Augustus O. Thomas, state commissioner of education of Maine, was re-elected president of the federation, and Geneva, Switzerland, was chosen as the place of the next meeting in 1929.

At Locarno, Switzerland, there was held at the same time a meeting of the New Education Fellowship. This meeting is reported by the *New York Times* as follows:

Psychoanalysis as a means of assisting the greatest possible release of the abilities and individuality of the child has been approved at a conference held here by 1,100 educational leaders from fifty-one different countries after two weeks' deliberations to work out a new charter of liberal progressive education.

The assemblage, gathered in the place where Sir Austen Chamberlain, Aristide Briand, and Dr. Gustav Stresemann elaborated their world-peace charter, includes 130 Americans. The throng of teachers has filled the hotels and has animated the city above Lake Maggiore like a country fair.

Nearly all the delegates are young, as befitting a new movement, and the majority are women. To save expenses, many are sleeping on the floors of their dormitories, whose walls are hung with an exhibition of school children's art.

Today, in addition to the regular meetings held in the Kursaal, one encountered many street gatherings, grouped according to languages, listening to lectures by various educators, such as Rose, the Indian botanist, who is attempting to show the unity of all life by proving that trees and plants have hearts and nervous systems.

Another group surrounded the famous Bakule Cozech Choir, singing German folk-songs, while an equally curious crowd of spectators listened with astonished comment while Americans rendered "Old Black Joe."

The Americans played a prominent part in the discussions of the congress, outlining in great detail the progress being made in their country of which the European educators had not been fully informed.

Among the Americans are Dr. Harold Rugg, of Columbia; W. Carson Ryan, of Swarthmore; Lucy L. W. Wilson, of Philadelphia; Carleton Washburne, Miss Flora Cooke, and Perry Smith, of Chicago; Mrs. Marietta Johnson, of Alabama; Stanley Yarnall, secretary of the Headmasters' Association of America, and Dr. Del Munzo and Miss Gilletti Hardy, of Teachers College, New York.

The conference, which is called the New Education Fellowship, was prepared by the Bureau of International Education at Geneva. It is the left wing of the educational movement of which the World Federation of Education Associations sitting simultaneously in Toronto is the right wing. Friendly co-operation between the two, however, is shown by the exchange of telegrams arranging the next biennial conference of the former for Denmark and of the latter for Geneva, with the dates not conflicting.

The tendency of the present meeting has been to find ways and means to secure the greatest possible release of the abilities of the individual child by furnishing an outlet for spontaneous feelings as opposed to attempting to enforce interest from without.

Hence, great stress is laid on individual effort as against massed lessons, the development of co-operation as against competition, and coeducation and mutual help between sexes as against separation and hostility.

The conference marked a new development in setting the age for beginning education back many years from the usual conception, laying greatest emphasis on the influence of the first three or four years.

The need of psychology, psychiatry, and psychoanalysis was stressed as never before in such conferences, one speaker saying, "If chemicals explode, you don't punish them but study why, and you ought to do just the same with children." Another urged that prospective teachers should spend less time in training courses and in dull books and more time in psychology and psychoanalysis as essential preparation for freeing their own characters and for understanding their pupils' characters and motives.

Strong criticism was directed against university authorities for the rigidity of college-entrance examinations, which, it was charged, destroy the freedom of the schools and prevent the development of a program best fitting the child's early needs.

The agenda for the next conference, two years hence, will be devoted to two principal subjects—first, freeing of the child to allow the fullest possible use of all the faculties he possesses and, second, the best kind of curriculum for the needs of modern life.

THE RECONSTRUCTION OF THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM OF SWEDEN

The following statement is quoted from the *New York Sun*.

A thorough reorganization of the school system of Sweden, with the aim of making it more democratic and in theory more like the American schools, has been voted by the Riksdag after a long and acrimonious debate. The fundamental idea of the new plan is to make the road to higher education more accessible to the children of all classes, regardless of family wealth or traditions. For that reason the public-school instruction will be the same for everybody during the first six years. After that the child's further training will depend on the ability shown in the lower grades.

Another departure is the abolition of state subsidies for private girls' schools; hereafter the two sexes will have the same opportunities and the same handicaps so far as the government is concerned.

The primary-school teachers, who as a class wield a great influence in Swedish politics, and the Social-Democratic party demanded that the public primary schools be better co-ordinated with the system of secondary education. It was urged that these schools should be the foundation on which the entire superstructure of intermediary schools and of higher institutions of learning is built; in other words, that there should be a straight path leading from the first grade in the public schools to the university. The laborer who sends his child to the nearest public primary school, it was demanded, should know that, given time and ability, that child could go on from class to class and from school to school until he reached the highest grade of education the nation has to offer.

Under the new plan all children have to pass the first six years in a public elementary school. The brightest ones then may pass on to a four-year intermediate school leading directly to a three-year junior college. The third year of this college course ends with an examination covering about a dozen subjects,

such as four modern and in some cases one or two ancient languages, physics, chemistry, mathematics, biology, geography, political and ecclesiastical history, and psychology. The successful passing of this examination is required for admittance to the universities and to the various higher civil and military academies.

The new organization means a greater centralization, a number of the present municipal intermediary schools having been taken over by the national government. Several private normal schools for women teachers will be abolished, and the conditions for granting governmental support to private schools will be more severe.

A characteristic of the Swedish schools before this reform was the parallel between the public elementary schools lasting six years and the lower grades of the secondary schools. Until now the secondary schools consisted of an intermediary school lasting five years and a college lasting four years. For admission they required a preparatory course corresponding to the first three years of the public elementary school, this being the only direct point of connection between the elementary- and the secondary-school systems.

To understand the differences between the two systems, it is necessary to look back to their origin. The modern public elementary education has developed out of schools established as early as the end of the Sixteenth Century by wealthy landlords in order to teach their tenants to read and write. In 1700 there were about fifty such schools, but since 1842, when primary education was made compulsory, there has been at least one school in each parish, and illiteracy virtually does not exist.

In these schools, which are attended by 94 per cent of the children, the sons and daughters of the working classes, from the age of seven to fourteen, receive primary instruction without any fees whatever. The elementary schools are generally coeducational, but in the larger cities there are also schools for boys and girls separately. The expenses for buildings and upkeep are defrayed by the municipal authorities, while salaries are largely paid by the national government.

A recent superstructure on the public elementary school is the obligatory continuation school. The courses given there are from 360 to 540 hours a year for two or three years. The instruction is intended to be of a practical nature and to be concentrated on subjects like agriculture, skilled trades, and commerce or, for girls, domestic work. Besides this, citizenship and sometimes natural history are taught. The children may also improve their general education by attending a higher elementary school from one to four years.

The continuation school is a foundation for the two-year apprentice schools, especially arranged for those employed in industry, trade, commerce, or domestic work. These schools may be made compulsory by the local authorities. For those who have passed an apprentice school there are one-year trade schools or

commercial schools, which, however, are entirely voluntary. More advanced are the technical trade schools and the technical or commercial colleges, the former giving practical education in a certain trade, the latter technical or commercial education of a general kind. The instruction in almost all these schools is entirely free.

Like the primary schools, the secondary schools can be traced back several centuries. They originated as dependencies to the bishoprics, being chiefly intended for the training of future clergymen. Now there is at least one of these schools in each important city. Most of the boys' schools are maintained by the state or national government, but there are also a number of private secondary schools, either mixed or for boys only. Practically all secondary schools for girls are private. Fees in the state secondary schools are very low. The private ones are somewhat more expensive, though they receive large contributions from the state and are supervised by the government board of education.

A recent type of school is the municipal intermediate school established in some towns and smaller cities. It has four one-year classes, which led into the college section of the old secondary schools in the larger cities. The municipal intermediary school made it possible for children in rural districts who passed six years in the local elementary school and who wished to qualify for the university-matriculation examination to remain in their home districts for another four years before going to college.

Most of these municipal schools are now to be taken over by the central government. Their organization can be said to have served as a pattern for the recent revision of the educational system, based on six years in the primary school and four years in the intermediate school.

The chief promoter of the educational reform is Verner Ryden, a primary-school teacher from Skane, the southernmost province of Sweden, where his father was a farmer. Ryden has devoted his entire life to the realization of his ideal, the establishment of a public primary school as the basis of all education.

As minister of education in the first Socialist cabinet in Sweden from 1917 to 1919, he organized the network of technical schools superposed on the primary school. He also raised the social standard of the teachers by increasing their salaries. Since his retirement from the cabinet, however, his influence has been the greatest. As a member of the school-reform committee, he was able to dictate the resolutions, and, when finally the present Liberal-Populist government brought the subject before this year's session of the Riksdag, Ryden was made chairman of the special parliamentary committee assigned to deal with the issue.

The government's proposition was opposed by most parties, but Ryden drew up a compromise, embodying the essential of his own ideas. He won the support not only of his own party, the Socialists, but also of the majority of the agrarian body headed by Professor C. A. Reuterskiöld.

AIRPLANE MODELS

The following letter, sent to the editors of the *School Review* by the managing editor of the *American Boy*, will be interesting to teachers in junior and senior high schools.

The *American Boy* will begin in its October issue a series of airplane-model articles that we feel sure will interest every teacher and every boy. In order to bring them to everyone's attention, we will send a free reprint of each, month by month, to any teacher who wishes them. While any teacher may receive these reprints, we think that those who deal with boys from twelve to eighteen years of age will be especially interested. They should address George F. Pierrot, Managing Editor, *American Boy Magazine*, 550 West Lafayette Boulevard, Detroit, Michigan.

The articles, which begin in our October issue, are by Merrill Hamburg, instructor in aviation in the Detroit schools. Mr. Hamburg is secretary of the Airplane Model League of America; his pupils hold world's records in airplane-model duration flights. He will tell how to build indoor planes that rise from the floor and remain in the air several minutes and outdoor speed planes that can travel fifty-five miles an hour or fly for a mile and a half. These planes are inexpensive and not hard to build; Detroit grammar-school boys have constructed them, unassisted, from Mr. Hamburg's plans. Mr. Hamburg also tells boys and girls how to join the Airplane Model League of America, with free membership card, official button, and privileges. This league, which is headed by William B. Stout, who is in charge of Henry Ford's airplane activities, aims to interest young people in aeronautics. It charges no dues or initiation fees and levies no assessments but, through its Question-and-Answer Department and by other services, will make itself very useful.

The *American Boy's* airplane-model project will be climaxed in June when the official national indoor and outdoor model airplane contests will be held in Detroit. The winners will go to England, at the expense of the *American Boy*, to compete with British champions.

THE FEDERAL TRADE COMMISSION AND
CORRESPONDENCE SCHOOLS

It is interesting to note that the agency which the federal government set up to control competition and to insure fair dealing in trade has come to the rescue of education and is taking steps to terminate the vicious practices of institutions which misrepresent the educational advantages of correspondence courses. The Federal Trade Commission has taken cognizance of the fact that fraud is practiced by certain correspondence schools. Specifically, some of the methods to be regarded as fraudulent are described in the following terms.

Misrepresentation as to standing, responsibility, or character of a correspondence school, either by failing to tell the whole truth or by deliberate misrepresentation. Common forms of this appear at times in the name under which the institution operates; by representations with reference to buildings alleged to be occupied, pictures or symbols used in advertisements or on letterheads, etc.; classified newspaper advertisements under column headings which represent the institution's position as an employer in need of service instead of an institution rendering service; representing the institution as a collection agency to intimidate debtor students, by conveying the impression that the institution is run for the benefit of students without profit to itself; by representing that prominent persons are faculty members when they are not and by giving inadequate or false address.

Misrepresentations respecting the securing of positions or increases in earnings for prospective pupils. These take the form of inducements coupled with latent conditions or exaggerations incapable of fulfilment, such as the guaranty of a job or raise in pay; overstating the demand for services of a specified character; misrepresenting the character or condition of the service and the probable earnings therefrom.

Misrepresentation as to the service alleged to be rendered by some institutions consists in conferring degrees and issuing diplomas under conditions with reference to which adequate teaching facilities, quality and thoroughness of instruction, and content of courses are lacking; in misapplying professional and vocational terms to instruction and in unwarranted claims as to the giving of "personal instruction."

Prospective students are misled as to prices through: limited, special, and free offers, which are not intended to be and are not either limited, special, or free offers; reductions offered from fictitious prices made sufficiently high to net the regular prices of the courses after granting such reductions; "money-back" guaranties, agreements, and contracts; offers of scholarships or partial scholarships, which are mere selling devices.

Disparagement of competitors or of their courses or service. The enrolment of students not qualified for the courses applied for and the use of superlatives in advertisements and other descriptions were condemned.

With the aid of the better correspondence schools, the Federal Trade Commission has drawn up a series of resolutions which are accepted as defining ethical practices and has taken steps to enforce as rules the principles enunciated in these resolutions. Prosecution of certain schools indulging in improper practices has already been initiated. The rules will become fully operative January 1, 1928. The complete series of rules is somewhat too long to be quoted here, but the following examples will serve to illustrate their general character.

1. *Resolved*, That overstatements or misrepresentations relating to actual or probable earnings are unfair practices. (Adopted unanimously.)

NOTE.—Inspirational copy can be written which will prod the ambitious to better their incomes through additional training without holding forth salaries that only the very exceptional can win.

Illustration: Statistics can be gathered to show the average earnings in any industry. If competent and experienced draftsmen command an average of \$100 a week, schools should not advertise "Earn \$250 a Week as a Draftsman." (There is no objection to copy featuring the success of a particular student, provided the name and address are given and no statement made to convey the impression that he is an average student.)

2. *Resolved*, That overstatements which set forth the demands and opportunities in any vocation or field of activity constitute unfair practice. (Adopted unanimously.)

NOTE.—Base demand for trained men on existing conditions: The job that additional training may command is worth pounding home to the prospect. The employment market, however, sets limitations which should be recognized. Rare opportunities open only to the exceptional should not be represented as usual.

Illustration: It is a known fact that the motion-picture industry does not generally consider the scenarios of unknown and unexperienced writers. A school, therefore, should not advertise that there is a big demand for new scenario writers.

3. *Resolved*, That to represent employment service in a misleading manner constitutes unfair practice. (Adopted unanimously.)

NOTE.—Describe employment features as and for what they are: To promise the prospect help in securing a job or in bettering his position, and to follow such promises with performance, is sound merchandising, and is to the advantage of the student, but care must be taken to set forth clearly and unmistakably all conditions upon which such service depends. To fail to do so is to invite misunderstandings.

4. *Resolved*, That to promise or guarantee a job or a raise in pay constitutes unfair practice. (Adopted: Vote—38 for, 5 against.)

NOTE.—To lead a prospect to believe that a certain wage or type of position is guaranteed upon the completion of a certain course of training without the student being aware of the difficulty within the course and the very small percentage who are able to complete the same is basing enrolment upon the ignorance of the enrolled and, therefore, unsound merchandising.

TRAINING INFERIOR STUDENTS

A bulletin published by the University of Buffalo under the title, *Testing and Training the Inferior Freshman*, which was prepared by Edward S. Jones, gives an account of an experiment which was undertaken with a view to correcting the deficiencies of a number of

students in the lowest two-fifths of their high-school classes who would have been excluded from the University if the common principle of selection had been applied. This experiment indicates that there is a recognition of responsibility in some quarters for student welfare which is altogether different from the attitude which permits many institutions to evade all difficulties in dealing with students by excluding those who do not exhibit superior ability in academic tests.

Professor Jones and his associates found that the students to whom they gave special training for three and one-half weeks were able to go forward with their college work with a degree of success quite equal to that achieved by the middle fifth of the high-school classes.

The paragraphs in which the training is described and evaluated are as follows:

In view of the actual record of course work, the informal reports from the students concerned, and our own estimate of the interest shown and the progress made in the various endeavors, we are inclined to place the order of merit of these endeavors from good to less good as follows:

1. Drill in writing compositions, accompanied by individual conferences and criticisms from the tutor. The method of instruction was for the instructor to meet the entire group together for an hour and a half each morning, during which time he lectured on important topics and illustrated his points by reading themes. Finally, as a rule, he assigned a theme topic for each student to write in his presence. The remainder of the day was spent in individual interviews, when each man's composition was read aloud and constructively criticized. This procedure, repeated every day for two weeks, was apparently remarkably successful.

2. Drill in rapid reading of simple material—articles from the daily newspaper. These articles were distributed in duplicate to each student. The procedure used was to have all the students read the article as rapidly as they could but with the understanding that questions would be raised later regarding the content of the article. It was possible, thus, to measure speed (number of words per second) as well as comprehension for each article read.

During the middle of the three-week drill session, each man's average reading speed and comprehension was posted for the inspection of all, as an incentive to improve. It was difficult to work out a curve of improvement of speed from beginning to end because of the difference in the difficulty of the various articles used. However, the final reading speed for the group using easy material was from four to nine words per second. We believe that the average, approximately six words per second, is well up to the standard of the typical American college student. As a matter of fact, we have discovered at the University of Buffalo

several students from the middle fifth of rural high school classes who were not able to read as rapidly as four words per second.

3. The drill in note-taking ranks third in importance in our estimation. Two lectures were given on the various aspects of note-taking, and an assignment was made on its technique from Kitson's *How To Use Your Mind* (revised); thereafter, each student was required to report to instructors with his notes on lectures given and on the books which he had read. By one or another instructor each was questioned three or four times by such remarks as "Just what is meant by this statement?" or "Why did you classify this comment under C (3) instead of under D (1)?"

Important as this aspect of the training was, we feel that we did not make great headway in it, largely because of the time-consuming character of the note-taking interviews.

We found two or three men in our group who had never before taken notes of any kind, and a number had merely transcribed at random the statements of a speaker. Hardly a person had built up a "system" of logical orderliness or of abbreviations—and these are hard to develop in a short period of time. In a general-science course, which most of our Freshmen are required to take and which depends quite largely upon the taking of notes from lectures, our "poor risk" students did less well than we expected. We hope in the future to develop this aspect of drill work considerably, not only by increasing the time taken for interviews but also by introducing new methods of instruction.

4. Drill in mathematics problems. About every other day a set of problems was handed out on mimeographed sheets, none of which involved more than simple algebra. About one half the time—twenty-five to thirty minutes—was spent on practical concrete problems and the other half on drill with quadratics or other common forms.

5. We are uncertain as to the value of the various fifty-minute lectures given on different topics. We believe that they were of considerable value, however, not only as a means of drill exercises in note-taking but by virtue of motivating our students to analyze themselves and make new attempts at habits of study. About ten lectures were given in all, covering such topics as mental hygiene, note-taking, abbreviations, habits, attentiveness, memorizing, culture, and vocational choice. A number of students commented upon one or another of the lectures as having given them an entirely new slant on education or on the best method of study.

The outcome of the Buffalo experiment shows that methods of work are quite as important as native intelligence, or whatever it is that is tested by high-school marks and by the common standardized tests. If three and one-half weeks of special guidance will improve low-grade students as much as was shown to be possible in this experiment, certainly there is ground for the contention that the easy

method of maintaining standards by eliminating all who are difficult to train will not be accepted as legitimate or defensible.

A STUDY BY HIGH-SCHOOL SENIORS OF FAILURES IN
HIGH SCHOOL

The Doylestown High School, Doylestown, Pennsylvania, has published a pamphlet of eight pages, entitled, *Failures in High School*, describing a unique type of graduation program, the character of which will be seen from the following quotations. The paragraphs quoted are from articles contributed by pupils.

For the last several years it has been the custom of our school to present, instead of the usual would-be inspiring academic speeches common to such occasions, a study made by a committee of Seniors of various problems concerning school life. Our purpose has been to interest all those who are directly influenced by the school—the parents, the teachers, and the pupils—in these problems which we have analyzed that they may be helped by the study which we present.

This year we have chosen as our study "high-school failures." This may seem to you a rather incongruous subject for a high-school commencement, but it really is not. Commencement does mark a certain success, but it must be remembered that in gaining that success some failures have been encountered and that both we and our successors may gain from those failures invaluable information. Thus, it is that we are presenting this study to you not as an end in itself but as the means to an end—that you may understand more thoroughly the reasons for, and facts about, high-school failures and, by understanding, remedy them. . . .

Our first thought in studying failures is the actual number. The next is of the subjects causing the most difficulty. There is interest, too, in knowing whether the boys or girls suffer the larger number of delinquencies. Fortunately, our school records covering the reports of teachers for fifteen hundred pupils are complete, and analyses of these records give the desired data.

The greater number of failures would be expected in the freshman class because of the larger number who have a chance to fail. This is what we found. The percentage of those who fail, however, is also higher in the first year of the high school.

Of the failures of the four years from 1922 to 1926, the freshman class supplied 45 per cent. Of course, we must take into consideration that this class makes up approximately one-third of the high school and it is from this class that the weeding-out process determines the survival of the strongest. Success or failure in the first year is very important because it determines the survivors for the following years. Common experience proves how critical this year is. . . .

It is very interesting to note in their order the subjects that have given the most trouble. Latin, history, and mathematics show the highest percentages of

failure. Twenty-one per cent of those taking Latin fail; 20 per cent of those taking history, and 17.4 per cent of those taking mathematics. The three contribute over 50 per cent of all the failures. Only 8.5 per cent of those taking English fail. Homecraft subjects have the least failures. Of those taking it, only 4 per cent fail. Of the individual subjects registering the highest failures are: second-year shorthand, typewriting, and commercial arithmetic. This, no doubt, may be a surprise to those who believe that commercial subjects are easy and select them for that reason. These three subjects claim more victims than Caesar or Cicero.

It is also very interesting to note the difference in the number of failures of the boys and of the girls. In science, chemistry, physics, and biology, we find that 12 per cent of the girls pursuing it fail, against 9 per cent failures for boys. Taking all the subjects together, however, we find that more boys fail than girls. Twenty-one per cent of all the boys fail, while only 13 per cent of the girls do. In other words, our school is no exception to the general experience that girls are more successful in high school than boys.

These figures can be put to some practical use, and it is this use that gives them their real value. It is only when parents, students, and teachers know which subjects cause the most trouble that remedies can be made. . . .

Failures in high school have been classified and enumerated from a questionnaire recently given to 311 high-school students. The pupils marked from the twenty-one possible causes given the five which they regarded as the most serious and important.

On the whole, the student body's ideas were quite unanimous, although in some cases directly opposite to the teachers' reasons.

It is interesting to notice that one cause, "the lack of home study," headed the list in three classes, the freshman, the sophomore, and the junior, and was the second most frequently given by the Seniors. . . .

The second most serious cause for failure given by the school—and that regarded as the most important by the Seniors—was "poor effort." . . .

The next two causes indicated by the student body were "no interest in school work" and "laziness." It may be noticed that these two causes, as well as the first two given, are causes which depend directly upon the pupil and in no way hold the school responsible for the students failing. . . .

In direct contrast with the number of votes for "lack of home study," "poor effort," "laziness," and "no interest in school work," there were comparatively few who gave as a cause "class too large," "too many subjects," or "too much athletics." These three causes when listed together had only forty-seven votes in the entire school as compared with another cause—"lack of home study"—which had 197 accusations. From this fact we can infer that the students realize that failures are due to themselves and not to conditions existing in the school.

RELATION OF HIGH-SCHOOL AND COLLEGE STANDINGS

The University of Minnesota has published in the *Faculty Bulletin* the report of a study by Dean J. B. Johnston of the relation between high-school standing and standing in the University of Minnesota. A part of this report is as follows:

Studies have been made of groups of students coming to the college from high schools in the Twin Cities from 1916-17 to 1926-27 and in 1926-27 of students coming from other towns and cities in Minnesota and from other states. Altogether, 4,000 students have been under observation, and, beginning with

TABLE I

HIGH-SCHOOL PERCENTILE RANK	MEN			WOMEN		
	Total	Number Entering College	Per Cent	Total	Number Entering College	Per Cent
91-100.....	156	67	42.9	380	129	34.0
81- 90.....	174	71	40.8	361	85	23.6
71- 80.....	189	83	44.0	341	70	20.2
61- 70.....	228	89	39.0	302	64	21.2
51- 60.....	221	68	30.8	305	61	20.0
41- 50.....	244	69	28.3	283	53	18.7
31- 40.....	253	81	32.0	282	44	15.6
21- 30.....	296	95	32.0	240	35	14.6
11- 20.....	290	80	28.0	237	36	15.0
1- 10.....	292	73	25.0	228	37	16.3
Total.....	2,343	776	33.0	2,961	614	20.7

1921-22, the cases of 2,642 college students have been examined by a common method.

Our students are self-selected from the graduates of accredited high schools. How this selection takes place in relation to the scholastic attainment of the students in the high schools is shown in Table I, which deals with the voluntary selection occurring between the high schools of Minneapolis and St. Paul and the College of Science, Literature, and the Arts of the University of Minnesota during the years 1922, 1923, and 1924.

The table is to be read as follows: the 10 per cent of the students having the highest marks in high school included 156 men and 380 women. Of the 156 men, 67 or 42.9 per cent and, of the 380 women, 129 or 34.0 per cent entered the college. It is obvious from this table that (a) girls get higher grades than boys in high school, (b) that more boys come to college from the lowest rank of the high-school classes than from the highest, and (c) that for both boys and girls the college entrants are to a slight degree selected from the upper scholastic levels.

Student mortality has been studied by the University registrar, R. M. West.

From his report and from the results of our study, these statements can be made: About 30 per cent of the Freshmen leave college during or at the end of the freshman year. About 20 per cent more do not stay beyond the sophomore year. About 52 per cent eventually graduate from some college or school in this university. Between 30 and 40 per cent may be regarded as actually lacking in ability (intellectual or other qualifications) to meet the present requirements for promotion and graduation. Approximately 45 per cent make an average of D while here. About two-thirds of those with D standings stay in college two years or less.

There are now only a few opportunities for a student having an average below C to pursue a course leading to a college or professional degree. Some part of those who make an average of D could really profit from some form of instruction above the level of the high school. . . .

In the fall of the years 1923-24, 1924-25, and 1925-26, 1,088 native white graduates of Twin City high schools of the previous June entered college. Those who ranked in the lowest one-fourth of their high-school classes made the following records in the freshman year.

College Standing	Number
F.....	92
D.....	83
C.....	4
B.....	..
A.....	..

Those who came from the highest one-fourth of the same high-school classes made the following records:

College Standing	Number
F.....	7
D.....	88
C.....	190
B.....	89
A.....	1

Of the lower group, 2.23 per cent secured a C average; of the higher group almost 75 per cent did so.

PREDICTING SUCCESS IN HIGH SCHOOL

Wilford H. Woody, research assistant in the Department of Educational Research of the Colorado State Teachers College, Greeley, Colorado, has prepared a mimeographed report on the relative importance of various factors which contribute more or less directly to achievement in the high school. This study was undertaken with a view to establishing, so far as possible, a basis for predicting the

probable success of pupils entering high school. It supplies information intended to be used in educational guidance.

Lest the true value of such a study and its proper use be misunderstood, it should be noted that no statistical device justifies high-school administrators in dealing with individual cases exclusively on the basis of general averages or correlations between groups. Many a slow pupil makes up for his slowness by industry and application. Nevertheless, it is very helpful to the administrator to know statistical probabilities. In his personal conferences with pupils he can then lay stress on the points where probability indicates the need of greatest emphasis.

The outcome of the study is summarized in the report as follows:

1. The influence of seven independent factors—school training (years in school), social status (Chapman score), distance from school (miles), physique index (pounds variation from normal weight), permanence of residence (years), life-age (months), and mental age (months)—on school achievement (the criterion) was considered for 292 ninth-grade boys and 308 ninth-grade girls in the schools with more than three teachers in Weld County, Colorado.

2. The influence of these factors was determined separately for boys and girls by the methods of partial correlation, multiple correlation, and the special form of the regression equation.

3. Mental age and life-age were more influential in determining school achievement than any other variables for both boys and girls and by all three methods of computation.

4. Mental age, social status, and permanence of residence were positive influences in achievement for boys, with life-age, school training, distance from school, and physique index negative.

5. For girls, permanence of residence and distance from school also exerted a positive pull.

6. Social status is important in determining the school success of boys but plays little part in the achievement of girls.

7. Physique index exerts considerable negative pull on the achievement of girls and is almost negligible for boys.

8. Predicted composite achievement scores may be made with the regression equation for boys with a reliability expressed by $R=0.627$ and for girls by $R=0.613$.

9. The probable error of estimate for boys is 5.92 and for girls but 4.92 out of a possible total of 109.1.

THE EVOLUTION OF LATIN-TEACHING

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The study of Latin as a foreign language started at a time when it was absolutely necessary for scholars to read, write, and speak Latin fluently.¹ To provide this complete mastery of Latin was the aim of the methods and content of the original courses, which were not very different from the traditional college-preparatory course of today. After the adoption of the French language in England following the Norman conquest in 1066, the proclamation of English as the official language by the statute of Edward III in 1327,² and the stimulus given to translation into English by the work of Caxton in the Fifteenth Century, most of the conditions which formerly made a knowledge of Latin necessary were removed. For its original, practical purpose, the study of Latin as Latin ceased to be essential in England by the end of the Seventeenth Century.³ Since that time there has been an incessant endeavor to discard the anachronistic course whose main *raison d'être* has vanished or to readjust it in closer conformity with later educational needs.

The failure to effect this readjustment has diminished the proportion of Latin pupils in secondary schools from the original 100 per cent to the present 25 per cent.⁴ Of the four million pupils in our secondary schools today, less than one million study Latin, and only about 1 per cent of our high-school pupils continue the study of Lat-

¹ Aubrey A. Douglass, *Secondary Education*, p. 4. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1927.

² Oliver Farrar Emerson, *The History of the English Language*, pp. 51-83. New York: Macmillan & Co., 1894.

³ "The classics have had in European education a position of exceptional privilege due in part to historical causes which have now ceased to be valid."—*Report of the Committee Appointed by the Prime Minister To Inquire into the Position of Classics in the Educational System of the United Kingdom*, p. 6. London, England: His Majesty's Stationery Office, 1921.

⁴ 1890, 34.69 per cent; 1895, 43.97 per cent; 1900, 50.61 per cent; 1905, 50.21 per cent; 1910, 49.05 per cent; 1915, 37.32 per cent; 1922, 27.52 per cent.—*Statistics of Public High Schools, 1921-1922*, p. 46. Bureau of Education Bulletin No. 7, 1924.

in college.¹ Were the protection afforded by college requirements removed, the traditional Latin course, unless considerably modified, would probably soon reach the vanishing point in American education.

Despite this fact, the subject has potentially many unique educational values, and our chief Latin problem today is the determination of these educational values and the formulation of a program by which they may be utilized in our secondary-school reorganization.

"Latin I look upon as absolutely necessary to a Gentleman," wrote John Locke² in 1693, "and indeed Custom, which prevails over everything, has made it so much a Part of Education, that even those Children are whipp'd to it, and made spend many Hours of their precious Time uneasily in *Latin*, who, after they are once gone from School, are never to have more to do with it as long as they live." There is nothing more ridiculous, said Locke, than that boys designed for a trade should be sent to a Latin Grammar School, "yet thither not only Gentlemen send their younger Sons, intended for Trades, but even Tradesmen and Farmers fail not to send their Children, though they have neither Intention nor Ability to make them Scholars. If you ask them why they do this, they think it as strange a Question as if you should ask them, Why they go to Church. Custom serves for Reason, and has, to those who take it for Reason, so consecrated this Method, that it is almost religiously observed by them, and they stick to it, as if their Children had scarce an orthodox Education unless they learned *Lilly's* [Latin] Grammar."

Locke was one of the first to remonstrate against using a technical college-preparatory course for general purposes in secondary education, and his protests have been reiterated by prominent educators in every generation down to the present.³

¹ *The Classical Investigation Conducted by the Advisory Committee of the American Classical League*, Part One, Appendix A. Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press, 1924.

² John Locke, *Some Thoughts concerning Education*, sec. 164.

³ a) Herbert Spencer, "What Knowledge Is of Most Worth."

b) Charles E. Bennett and George P. Bristol, *The Teaching of Latin and Greek in the Secondary School*, pp. 6-7. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1901.

c) Charles Hubbard Judd, *Psychology of High School Subjects*, pp. 211-16. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1915.

d) Abraham Flexner, *A Modern School*, pp. 6-7, 11-12, 18-19. Occasional Papers, No. 3. New York: General Education Board, 1916.

e) David Snedden, *Sociological Determination of Objectives in Education*, pp. 94-119. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1921.

The reorganization of secondary education since the war, however, brings with it considerable hope for the adjustment of the traditional Latin program to the needs and demands of modern secondary education. The syllabus is being gradually simplified;¹ the College Entrance Examination Board has modified its requirements;² and even those most obstinate conservatives, the publishers, have responded by putting out some very modern Latin textbooks.³

This change is the culmination of the effect of a long series of forces, many of which are sociological and fortuitous rather than primarily pedagogic.⁴ Back of it all lies the fact that the prominent part played by Latin in education was not deliberately planned but was partly a sequel of the conquests of Roman military and executive genius⁵ and partly a descendant from the Latin ancestry of the Catholic church and the Roman law, which made Latin the international language of scholarship from Julius Caesar to Napoleon. The rise of modern nations and languages slowly but inevitably decreased the prestige given to Latin originally by the Roman supremacy.

After modern languages had displaced Latin as an international language⁶ and the commanding position of Latin in scholastic affairs

¹ *The Classical Investigation* (Part One, pp. 156-62) recommends the postponement of the subjunctive and other difficulties of first-year Latin until the second year of Latin study.

² The College Entrance Examination Board has announced that after 1928 examinations in translation of Latin text will be entirely at sight, based on a prescribed vocabulary and definite points of grammar. The amount of required reading has also been decreased somewhat.

³ The new first-year texts show greater correlation with English grammar; more emphasis on word study, interesting short stories, and illustrations; and a slower development of subject matter, at a rate more suitable for junior high school classes.

⁴ Charles E. Bennett and George P. Bristol, *op. cit.*, pp. 1-49.

⁵ The Greeks and Semites had also mastered the civilized world of their day and impressed their culture upon it, but they were too early to affect the new Western World of modern nations. The Teutons, who later overthrew the Roman Empire, were too illiterate, and their conquests too superficial, to eradicate the Roman influence. Furthermore, the practical, systematic character of the Roman mind is reflected in the Latin language, giving it an advantage over other tongues.

⁶ Newton's *Principia* (1686) and Linnaeus' *Systema naturae* (1735) were the last books of universal interest written in Latin. "The practice of employing Latin as an 'international language' in documents addressed to the learned or official world lasted at least down to the date of the Treaty of Utrecht (1713), which was drafted in Latin."—*Report of the Committee Appointed by the Prime Minister To Inquire into the Position of Classics in the Educational System of the United Kingdom*, p. 32.

was questioned by Locke and other educational authorities, the subject held its place with remarkable tenacity.¹ School control was still in the hands of men of classical training, and educational conservatism and inertia had great influence. When the prestige of the subject and the power of its supporters no longer sufficed without some logical argument, belief in formal discipline and in the cultural training derived from Latin study held the subject in first place until the beginning of the Twentieth Century. Up to that time Latin and mathematics were as staple in the educational diet as meat and potatoes in the physical diet.

The loosening of the Latin grip on secondary education is the result of many independent factors, including the lack of logical co-ordination between elementary and secondary schools,² the changing character of high-school registration, the rejection of formal discipline, the rise of the elective system, the expansion of the educational field,³ the development of the scientific study of education, and the unfortunate failure of the Latin forces to readjust their program to meet these changed conditions.

The inability or unwillingness of teachers of the classics to evaluate impartially the strong and weak points of their case has brought irreparable injury to the study of Greek and Latin. Greek has practically disappeared from secondary schools and has shrunk to an insignificant place in colleges. For at least a hundred years the position of Latin in public secondary schools has been logically untenable, and the obstinate endeavor of its teachers to force the study of Latin has probably hurt the subject more than all the hostile attacks of its opponents.⁴ It has never been possible to teach the traditional six-year Latin course successfully in four years in American secondary schools, and the difficulty has gradually grown greater as the average

¹ "Man has a veritable passion for keeping up habits merely because he has them; there are men who would rather beat a sick child than write 'thru.' In education man often excuses himself in these futile conservatisms by the hope that such cherished antique fads may have magic potencies on the mind as a whole."—Edward L. Thorndike, *Educational Psychology*, II, 424. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1913.

² Charles Hubbard Judd, *The Evolution of a Democratic School System*, pp. 1-70. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1918.

³ Ellwood P. Cubberley, *Changing Conceptions of Education*, pp. 25-68. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1909.

⁴ Charles Hubbard Judd, *Psychology of High-School Subjects*, pp. 214-15, 393.

ability of high-school pupils has decreased.¹ College-entrance standards have tended to move in the opposite direction on account of the increasing number who wish to attend college. In the eastern states, where democratic ideals of education originated and aborted, no reputable college wishes to admit pupils of only average ability, and many boys whom eastern colleges do not wish to admit for one reason or another are forced to migrate and complete their education in the less exclusive western universities. As pupils of only average ability cannot attain a rank in Latin high enough to satisfy college-entrance requirements, this subject has had to bear the onus of being the barrier which keeps the average pupil out of college.

This fundamental difficulty of an artificially high standard is aggravated by the incongruous character of our public-school curriculum.² Our elementary-school program is essentially an eight-year slow-moving course, borrowed from the Prussian *Volksschule*, which was designed for plebeian children who were to go no farther in school. It is too simple for the average American child, who frequently loafs or skips grades, a procedure which gives him and his parents a false impression of his learning capacity. The number of "skippers" is also augmented under certain types of supervision by shortsighted ideas of economy and the habit of adjusting pupil promotions to fit the school machinery. All this results in a promotion standard for admission to high school that is as much too low³ for the average pupil as the college-entrance standard is too high.

When the average American child who has gone through the elementary school with ease enters the high school, he must take in most cases what is essentially a college-preparatory course, borrowed from the English Latin grammar school⁴ and designed originally to

¹ E. L. Thorndike, "Changes in the Quality of the Pupils Entering High School," *School Review*, XXX (May, 1922), 355-59.

² Charles Hubbard Judd, *The Evolution of a Democratic School System*, pp. 1-70.

³ The failure to distinguish between promotion and education, or between non-promotion and failure, is sometimes a great injustice to the child who is overpromoted. In many cases non-promotion as a penalty for loafing has greater educational value in character formation than has the attainment of a passing mark.

⁴ a) Aubrey A. Douglass, *op. cit.*, pp. 4-12.

b) We have progressed a little, however, as the following description of a New England colonial school will show.

"The Primer mastered, by dint of much persuasion and at the cost of many tears,

prepare the sons of English gentlemen for professional careers. It is as much too hard for him as the lower course was too easy, requiring an intelligence quotient of over 100 for even a bare passing mark. When children who have been honor pupils in the elementary school find themselves failing in Latin in high school,¹ everyone complains, and rightly, but the blame is usually put in the wrong place. Too often either the lower or the higher school is accused of poor teaching. Parents are irritated; pupils are discouraged; morale in general is lowered; and everyone suffers from the inability of pupils and teachers to do the impossible. The only surprising thing is the length of time that such conditions prevailed without making any great change in the status of Latin.

While these irritating conditions were creating a smouldering grievance against Latin, compulsory-education laws and changing economic factors created a great increase in high-school registration about the beginning of the Twentieth Century, bringing in a new heterogeneous class, less capable and less interested in academic edu-

the boys are now too large to be longer restrained by bands of yarn or to be pinned to the good matron's apron. They are seven or eight years old, and the Latin School opens its doors to them. . . . The boys bring to the master's school a Psalter and a Bible; they will need no other English books; they will read these every day till they go to college. They will cipher, too, a little. The master will dictate a problem, and the boys will work on it till they dig it out. But this work is only incidental; this is a grammar school, and Latin grammar is the be-all and the end-all. . . .

"We are to fancy our Latin School boys, in the earlier days, . . . working their way through Cheever's *Accidence*, then plunging into the dreary wilderness of Lilly's *Grammar*, with its twenty-five kinds of nouns, its seven genders, its fifteen solid pages of rules for gender and the exceptions, its twenty-two solid pages of declensions of nouns, all of which must be committed to memory, not at the point of the bayonet but at the end of the ferule. . . .

"The university fixed its requirements for admission as follows: 'Whoever shall be able to read Tully or any other such like classical author at sight, and correctly and without assistance to speak and write Latin both in prose and verse, and to inflect exactly the paradigms of Greek nouns and verbs, has a right to expect to be admitted into the college, and no one may claim admission without these qualifications.'

"So much classical knowledge every town of a hundred families was to provide, and by a law of 1683 a town of five hundred families must have two such schools and two writing schools."—George H. Martin, *The Evolution of the Massachusetts Public School System*, pp. 58-60. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1894.

¹ About 30 per cent of the pupils taking first-term Latin in the New York City high schools fail in the course.

cation.¹ This change necessitated the elective system and the introduction of a host of new subjects in competition with Latin, which began to lose ground perceptibly and was forced to consider modifications.²

About this time the new school of educational psychologists struck a serious blow at formal discipline.³ The classical view was substantially as follows: "The study of the Latin language itself does eminently discipline the faculties and secure to a greater degree than that of the other subjects we have discussed, the formation and growth of those mental qualities which are the best preparation for the business of life—whether that business is to consist in making fresh mental acquisitions or in directing the powers thus strengthened and matured, to professional or other pursuits."⁴ As Colvin puts it, "the formal disciplinarian goes still farther. He not only assumes powers of the mind that can be trained in an all-round fashion; he concludes that there are certain subjects as such which because of their superior values offer the best training of these powers. Hence the purpose of education becomes not the teaching of specific subject matter for its own value. The end of teaching is a kind of mental gymnastics, a general setting-up exercise for the neurones. The subject as such is indifferent; the training that it gives is the supreme end to be sought. . . . It is safe to say that any reasonable interpretation of the established facts entirely discredits the doctrine of formal discipline."⁵

The rejection of the theory of formal discipline does not, how-

¹ a) Ellwood P. Cubberley, *An Introduction to the Study of Education and to Teaching*, pp. 282-95. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1925.

b) Aubrey A. Douglass, *op. cit.*, pp. 61-62.

² The files of the *Classical Journal* for the last twenty years contain eloquent evidences of this fact.

³ For a general treatment, see Charles Hubbard Judd, *Psychology of High-School Subjects*, pp. 392-435; *The Classical Investigation*, Part One, pp. 183-88; *The Classical Investigation*, Part Two, chap. iii, sec. 4; Ellwood P. Cubberley, *An Introduction to the Study of Education and to Teaching*, pp. 154-55, 246-47; Edward L. Thorndike, *Educational Psychology*, II, 350-433; Aubrey A. Douglass, *Secondary Education*, pp. 346-61.

⁴ Joseph Payne, *Lectures on the History of Education*, I, 266. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1892.

⁵ Stephen S. Colvin, "Transfer in Learning," *Classical Journal*, XIX (December, 1923), 143-44.

ever, deny *in toto* the possibility of transfer of learning under favorable conditions and with the proper stimulus for generalization.¹ Transfer can take place when there is a sufficient identity of elements to permit of generalization and when the generalizing process has been specifically developed.²

Cubberley summarizes the consensus of opinion on transfer of training in the following words.

Half a century ago this was a generally accepted doctrine, and the study of Latin or mathematics was in part defended on the theory that it disciplined the mind, and prepared one for success in life in many and quite different ways later on. In the reaction which later took place against this conception, known as the "doctrine of formal discipline," the idea of a transfer of training was rejected almost entirely, and in its place came the conception that learning consisted in learning a large number of quite specific things, and processes, and skills. Recently a number of experiments have tended to show that there is a middle ground, and that teaching can be so conducted as to lead to a much greater transfer of training than was formerly thought possible.³

If we discard points on which there is considerable difference of opinion or general haziness, the practical features of transfer of training so far as it applies to Latin-teaching resemble closely what was called "correlation" thirty years ago. There is no doubt that Latin possesses potentially many elements of training which offer opportunities for correlation with important activities of life—training in precision in the choice of words, care in sentence structure,

¹ Aubrey A. Douglass, *op. cit.*, pp. 356-61.

² "There is no inherent reason in the psychology of the individual mind or in the psychology of any subject of instruction for supposing that experience cannot be generalized. On the other hand, there is no reason to assume that experience of any type will infallibly carry over into any other sphere whatsoever. . . . Everywhere in human experience there are large possibilities of generalizing experience, and everywhere in school there is danger that experience will be narrowly specialized. . . . One goes back, for example, to the period of instruction in the classics when . . . there was no possibility of utilizing the results of that classical study in the life of the student. The study was a closed domain of experience, useful only in carrying the student around a narrow circle of exercises which terminated in more exercises of exactly the same sort and never stimulated the student to go out in further investigation of the world. A subject which gets itself so organized that it rotates around its own center immediately becomes formal."—Charles Hubbard Judd, *Psychology of High-School Subjects*, pp. 420-21.

³ Ellwood P. Cubberley, *An Introduction to the Study of Education and to Teaching*, pp. 246-47.

knowledge of the finer shades of meaning in phrases, habits and ideals of accuracy, thoroughness, and concentration. Unfortunately, the endeavor to cram six years of technical Latin into the four years of the high school has resulted necessarily in disregard of almost everything but "Latin as Latin." As Nutting naïvely remarks with reference to a plan for improving high-school English, "the plan there outlined is admirable for a class in English that has a background of Latin. But such results can never be hoped for in average Latin classes. Even granting the ability of the students, there would be no time left to teach Latin."¹

Coincident with the fall of formal discipline came a radical change in college-entrance and all graduation requirements, making Latin optional in many cases where it had formerly been compulsory.² It was now possible for students to go through high school and college in some courses without knowing a word of Latin or Greek, which meant the loss of another stronghold of the classics. Many colleges, however, especially schools for girls, still required four years of Latin for entrance, and, where three years of foreign language was required, Latin was still far ahead of the other foreign languages.

Table I shows some typical requirements for the A.B. degree.

After the war, the great increase in the number of candidates for admission to college allowed most schools to raise their standards for admission and forced them to devise more effective barriers against the inefficient. Psychological tests began to take the place of Latin and mathematics as eliminants,³ and another artificial protection of the Roman forces was removed. Recently scholastic aptitude tests have been found so satisfactory that they seem likely to supplant all other means of prognosis for college entrance.⁴

¹ H. C. Nutting, "Taking the Measure of Latin," *Classical Journal*, XIX (November, 1923), 94.

² Aubrey A. Douglass, *op. cit.*, pp. 90-91.

³ David Snedden, *op. cit.*, pp. 94-119.

⁴ These tests are now given by the College Entrance Examination Board and required by most colleges in addition to, or in place of, other tests on subject matter. They are a combination of general-intelligence and general-information tests and have about a dozen subdivisions. They have time limits, taking altogether about two and one-half hours.

The substitution of the single three-hour general-ability test for the traditional

While the cumulative effect of all these changes in the status of Latin was putting classical teachers on the defensive to an alarming extent on account of the keen competition in the overloaded curriculum, and progressive teachers were constantly searching for means of strengthening their position, the General Education Board in May, 1920, expressed to the American Classical League its willingness to finance an investigation of the classics in American secondary schools.¹

TABLE I*

TYPICAL LATIN AND GREEK REQUIREMENTS FOR THE A.B. DEGREE

College	Foreign-Language Units for Entrance	Latin and Greek Units for Entrance	Hours of Latin and Greek for Graduation
Amherst.....	5-6	4 Latin or 3 Greek	8-16 Latin or 8-14 Greek
Bryn Mawr.....	7	4 Latin or 3 Greek and 1 Latin	10 Latin or Greek
Chicago.....	2	2 Latin	10-20 Latin or 10-23 Greek
Harvard.....	4-5	3 Latin, 2 Greek, or vice versa	0
Mt. Holyoke.....	6	3 Latin or Greek	0
New York University...	5-6	4 Latin	18 Latin
Princeton.....	7	4 Latin	6 Latin or Greek
Smith.....	3-4	4 Latin or 3 Greek	6 Latin or Greek
Union.....	4	4 Latin	14 Latin
Vassar.....	6	3 Latin or Greek	0
Wellesley.....	6	4 Latin	0
Yale.....	5-6	4 Latin or 3 Greek	6 Latin or Greek

* Francis J. Giles, *Latin and Greek in College Entrance and College Graduation Requirements*, pp. 32, 45, 158-75. Washington: Catholic University of America, 1926.

Although the classicists were unwilling to concede the need of investigating their claim to an important place in secondary education, they were quite willing to embrace any opportunity to strengthen their cause, and in January, 1921, the American Classical League

series of college-entrance examinations would have many advantages aside from the economy of time and energy. First of all, it would remove the only argument for retaining many of the technicalities of the traditional barrier subjects. It would make possible a rationalizing of the program and the elimination of much of the conventional high-school course. It would discourage the notorious cramming methods and tend to put all applicants on an equal footing in the matter of external grooming. As a whole, it would probably, when fully developed, prove a far more reliable method of selecting suitable candidates to receive special training for democratic leadership.

¹ *The Classical Investigation*, Part One, pp. 1-15.

submitted to the General Education Board a program for an investigation "for the purpose of ascertaining definitely the present status of Latin and Greek and of preparing a constructive program of recommendations for improving the teaching of Latin and Greek in the secondary schools of the United States."¹ The character of the proposed investigation was significantly limited by these words: "In formulating our plans it has been assumed that Latin will continue to be taught as an instrument in the general education of a very large number of boys and girls in the secondary schools, that the results being secured in the teaching of Latin are not all they should be and that these results could be improved."²

The plan proposed was accepted by the General Education Board; about \$100,000 was appropriated to start the investigation; and in the spring of 1921 a special committee of fifteen, composed almost entirely of college professors and teachers in college-preparatory schools,³ began a three-year survey of the teaching of Latin in secondary schools, involving two thousand schools, nine thousand teachers, and one hundred and fifty thousand pupils.

The general report of the investigation, prepared under the supervision of Andrew F. West, of Princeton University, is one of the most interesting documents in the history of Latin-teaching. The statistical part of the survey was handled principally by an impartial committee of fifty college professors of education and psychology.⁴ It shows that Latin pupils attain greater proficiency in all subjects than do non-Latin pupils of equal initial ability⁵ despite the fact that the teaching of the subject has been handicapped by poorly prepared teachers⁶ and by an environment not always friendly or neutral. The average superiority is about 12 per cent.

The survey being avowedly a study of methods of improving the teaching of the classics, the report has little to say on the controversial questions regarding the justification of the traditional course. The general recommendations for the reorganization of the curricu-

¹ *Ibid.*, p. 29.

² *Ibid.*

³ *Ibid.*, p. 4.

⁴ Aubrey A. Douglass, *op. cit.*, pp. 384-85.

⁵ *The Classical Investigation*, Part One, pp. 236-46.

⁶ Aubrey A. Douglass, *op. cit.*, pp. 128-30.

lum¹ are conservative and do not go beyond dilutions and modifications already well established in some progressive schools. The sections dealing with the paramount problem of college-entrance requirements² apparently have no connection with "the ultimate objectives which teachers regard as valid for their pupils" (p. 123).³

Assuming, however, that there will eventually be some way found to carry out the progressive features of the report without this college-entrance nullification, one can find in the report almost everything that the most radical reformer could wish to bring about in Latin-teaching.

In the first place, the "progressive development of ability to read and understand Latin" is omitted⁴ from the list of "ultimate objectives . . . which involve educational values upon which the justification of Latin as an instrument in secondary education must depend."⁵ Although the ability to read Latin is labeled with the paradoxical name of "indispensable primary immediate objective" (a sort of means-end, or way-station terminal), it is classified not as a genuine objective but rather as a sort of temporary means, "in which progressive achievement is necessary to insure the attainment of the ultimate objectives, but which may cease to function after the school study of Latin has ceased."⁶

Many would go farther than this concession and maintain that for the average American high-school pupil of today the study of any foreign language merely for its value as a foreign language is not

¹ *The Classical Investigation*, Part One, pp. 123-24.

² *Ibid.*, pp. 165-68.

³ There is a discrepancy here between objectives and examinations which must be reconciled before practical classroom teachers will dare to deviate far from the beaten path of centuries. No matter what the theoretical objectives may be, pupils must be prepared to meet the graduation and college-entrance requirements, and, until secondary schools can proceed *suo ut aiunt Marte*, the syllabus on which the examinations are based becomes the "indispensable primary immediate objective." See Aubrey A. Douglass, *op. cit.*, pp. 94-95.

⁴ This omission may be due to the fact that by "ability to read and understand Latin" the committee meant "training the pupil from the first to get the thought in the Latin order and directly from the Latin itself instead of backward and indirectly through the translation" (p. 93), "to read Latin as Latin, that is, to get hold of the sense in the Latin order without translation" (p. 189).

⁵ *The Classical Investigation*, Part One, p. 32.

⁶ *Ibid.*

worth the time it takes.¹ Until foreign-language study is revised to have a content worth remembering and methods that develop habits and attitudes worth having, it will remain, as it is in most cases today, merely a temporary vehicle or a stepping-stone for the attainment of some other objective which could usually be reached more economically in some other way.

Second, if pupils do not study Latin for the purpose of learning to read it, why do they study it? The answer to this question is found in the list of objectives formulated from the questionnaire submitted to 1,150 experienced teachers of secondary-school Latin by the survey committee. These teachers put in first place in all Latin work "increased ability to read, speak and write English."² Next in importance they put the development of correct mental habits and attitudes, followed by the acquisition of a historical and cultural background and a general knowledge of the fundamental principles of language structure. The following are the most important specific objectives for the first year, in the order of their importance.

Increased knowledge of the principles of English grammar and a consequently increased ability to speak and write grammatically correct English.

The development of certain desirable habits and ideals which are subject to spread, such as habits of sustained attention, orderly procedure, overcoming obstacles, perseverance; ideals of achievement, accuracy and thoroughness; and the cultivation of certain general attitudes such as dissatisfaction with failure or with partial success.

Increased ability to understand the exact meaning of English words derived directly or indirectly from Latin, and increased accuracy in their use.

Increased ability to spell English words of Latin derivation.

Increased ability to speak and write correct and effective English through training in adequate translation.

Increased ability to read English with correct understanding.

An elementary knowledge of the simpler general principles of language structure.³

¹ "The modern curriculum is not . . . a series of courses intended for the student who is specializing with a view to entering the professions. . . . Whatever may have been true of the boys of the middle of the last century, it certainly is not true at the present time that every student will benefit by a long and rigorous course in the classics or in one of the modern foreign languages."—Charles Hubbard Judd, *Psychology of High-School Subjects*, p. 215.

² *The Classical Investigation*, Part One, pp. 79-80.

³ *The Classical Investigation*, Part One, pp. 49, 55, 42, 48, 45, 44, 71.

This list of objectives, representing the consensus of opinion of experienced teachers in daily contact with the problems and practice of Latin-teaching in secondary schools, is probably the most significant and valuable product of the Classical Investigation. In fact, it is so revolutionary in its implications and potentialities that its practical application to classroom procedure is likely to be slow and uneven although its soundness and desirability are unquestioned.

Fortunately, the report goes farther and suggests the method by which these new objectives may be introduced without seriously disturbing the graduation and college-entrance requirements of the latter half of the high-school program. Near the end of the last chapter (pp. 257-62) is an excellent summary of the reasons why our Latin work should be organized in two distinct phases—a three-year elementary integrating course, presenting the elements of Latin which are of a general, practical nature from the "Latin as English" point of view, and a three-year advanced, technical differentiating course of "Latin as Latin."

Of course, the proposal of a six-year Latin course is nothing new.¹ It has been the method followed in upper-class European schools for centuries,² and it was simply our fantastic 8-4 organization which forced on Latin the impossible task of really accomplishing six years of Latin secondary work in four years. The six-year course was recommended in the report of the Committee of Twelve³ in this country thirty years ago, but its adoption was prevented by the fact that we were not prepared to teach Latin in the upper grades of the elementary schools and we had practically no six-year high schools. The new features which make the proposition now feasible are the elimination of the "Latin as Latin" objective and the adoption of a list of first-year objectives of such a character that it is possible to limit the seventh- and eighth-year work to comparative grammar and word study, which need not be taught by a Latin specialist. The develop-

¹ Charles E. Bennett and George P. Bristol, *op. cit.*, pp. 124-30. *The Classical Investigation*, Part One, pp. 257-62; Part Three, pp. 23-25, 127-34, 166-71.

² Aubrey A. Douglass, *op. cit.*, pp. 110-30.

³ "Report of the Committee of Twelve of the American Philological Association on Courses of Study in Latin and Greek for Secondary Schools," *Proceedings and Addresses of the Thirty-eighth Annual Meeting of the National Education Association* (1899), pp. 689-702.

ment of the junior high school also facilitates the three-year introductory course.

This plan for a three-year general course preliminary to the technical study of a foreign language seems to be the best solution of the Latin dilemma. It removes the vital weakness of a course too hard for the average high-school pupil of today¹ and makes it possible to offer to all pupils a simple course containing all the valuable features derived from the intimate relation existing between Latin and English, reserving for the latter half of the course the technicalities demanded by the college-entrance requirements and inherent in the study of "Latin as Latin." This will be a great benefit to the pupils of both the general course and the special course since only the stronger pupils should take up the second half of the work. As Professor Bennett says, "the danger seems to be not that too few will study Latin, but rather too many. Latin is a difficult subject, and the peculiar educative power it possesses is not capable of being exercised upon all minds—only upon those of a certain natural endowment. . . . Latin is good for those whose gifts enable them to profit by its study. It is not, however, capable of popular distribution like so much flour or sugar. . . . Observation convinces me that many parents and pupils labour from a serious misconception on this point, and that many are ambitious to study Latin whom nature has not endowed with the capacity to benefit from its pursuit."² The natural difficulties of the subject have been greatly increased by our endeavor to do in four years, with our heterogeneous high-school groups, large classes, short periods, mediocre teachers, congested curriculum, loose organization, and corrupting influences, an amount of work which takes six years in the best private preparatory schools of Europe, with select pupils, small classes and schools, expert teachers, systematic organization, and strictly professional control.³

¹ "My own experience with elementary pupils has shown me that they are ignorant of the meanings of words, they fail to apprehend the force of inflections, they have hazy or inaccurate conceptions of syntactical possibilities, they are not adequately informed as to the subject matter with which the Latin text is concerned."—Charles E. Bennett and George P. Bristol, *op. cit.*, p. 96.

² Charles E. Bennett and George P. Bristol, *op. cit.*, pp. 48-49.

³ *The Classical Investigation*, Part Three, pp. 91-96, 180-90.

A further advantage of this new three-year general course is that it fits in admirably with the purposes and methods of the junior high school, which seems likely to become an almost universal feature in our public-school organization.¹ So far as Latin is concerned, the 6-3-3 organization, with the junior high school as the second unit, is not an entirely new idea but a belated return, or conversion, to the regular 6-6 program of European schools for the upper classes, with the new feature of emphasis on three-year exploratory courses.²

¹ a) Ellwood P. Cubberley, *An Introduction to the Study of Education and to Teaching*, pp. 290-91.

b) Thomas H. Briggs, *The Junior High School*, pp. 1-64. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1920.

c) L. A. Pechstein and A. Laura McGregor, *Psychology of the Junior High School Pupil*, Part II. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1924.

d) Charles Hughes Johnston, Jesse H. Newlon, and Frank G. Pickell, *Junior-Senior High School Administration*, pp. 16-18. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1922.

e) Joseph K. Van Denburg, *The Junior High School Idea*, pp. 8-20. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1922.

f) Aubrey A. Douglass, *op. cit.*, pp. 133-54.

g) Leonard V. Koos, *The Junior High School*, p. 18. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1920.

² "If the languages would make a genuine effort to interest students by putting in the foreground some of the general principles of language structure, thus using the rich body of material which is known to comparative philology, there can be no doubt at all that much of the prejudice against the long courses which are now required as the only means of studying language would tend to disappear."

"We must emphasize the necessity of giving to each student introductory courses in all the major fields of human experience. Later life will demand specialization; the period of adolescence is one of general training in anticipation of the period of specialization. . . . One of the reasons why the languages are having a good deal of difficulty at the present time in maintaining a position in the program is that they demand so large a portion of the high-school students' time that it is felt both by parents and by the students themselves to be irrational to devote so much of a brief high-school course to the study of a single subject. If now the period of secondary training is extended to six years, there is a possibility of combining the two principles of diversity of training and coherence of courses in a very much more advantageous fashion. There will be six years instead of four through which the diversity of interest may be spread. The clear recognition of the principle will lead high-school teachers to present to students certain general courses which will supply the ordinary members of the student body with a view of the various subjects in which they ought to be interested, but in which they are not expected to make exhaustive studies."—Charles Hubbard Judd, *Psychology of High-School Subjects*, pp. 216, 506-7.

A well-made exploratory language course would have the following justifications. (1) It would have an intense practical value for training in English. (2) It would make possible the slow and thorough development of linguistic principles. (3) It would help remarkably in the study of foreign languages later. (4) It would allow the presentation of the practical values of Latin unencumbered by the technical details. (5) It would permit the segregation of grammatical details from the study of English literature, with advantage to both. (6) It would serve as an excellent prognosis of language ability and as a guide for both pupil and teacher in the selection of later work. (7) Its broad, general elementary nature would harmonize exactly with the fundamental theories governing the junior high school plan.

Since it is evident that the creation of a new three-year general-language course with improvement in English as an important objective has the indorsement of the most prominent authorities on secondary education in the United States today, it would seem highly desirable that such a course be organized, at least tentatively, as soon as possible. The ultimate crystallization of the program would, of course, be possible only after prolonged experiment with different schemes, but from the facts at present available the following outline seems advisable.

1. *The course should be primarily an English course, required of all pupils* and presented thoroughly and systematically, with no "sugar coating" or concessions to material primarily entertaining. Whether it should be taught by teachers of English or teachers of foreign language would be immaterial if a carefully prepared textbook were available.

2. *The course should cover five periods a week in the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades.* In the seventh and eighth grades it would naturally take the time now given to English spelling, grammar, and word study, all of which it should include. In the ninth grade it would fill the place of the first year of a foreign language.

3. *The work of the seventh and eighth grades should be of a broad general-language nature, using only so much Latin as has positive value in developing ability in English and general linguistic princi-*

ples—practically a course in comparative grammar, with the emphasis on English.¹

4. *The work of the ninth grade should be the rudiments of inflection and syntax*, presented through the medium of elementary Latin and correlated with comparative grammar in such a way as to afford the broadest and most thorough foundation for pupils wishing to begin *technical* language study in the tenth grade. Whatever simple narratives are used should be adapted for sight translation and should be supplementary and incidental, serving as a means of enrichment of the course for bright pupils rather than as essentials for the whole class.

5. *The aim of the work in the first three years should be the development of ability in English* through thorough training in fundamental linguistic principles. While the work might well include the regular inflections taught in first-year Latin, the vocabulary and syntax presented should be restricted to elements common to English and Latin.

6. *The content of the course should be strictly limited to material appropriate for a correlative study of English and Latin*, with emphasis on the seven primary objectives specified for first-year Latin in the report of the Classical Investigation. Consequently, it would not include any large amount of classical archaeology, Roman antiquities, or classical mythology as such. The appropriate place for such material is in the technical Latin course in connection with the reading of the classical authors. Naturally, the thorough development of the linguistic essentials of the course would preclude the introduction of much material not correlated with the grammatical core of the work.

7. *Methods of presentation should be such as to emphasize "habits of sustained attention, orderly procedure, overcoming obstacles, perseverance; ideals of achievement, accuracy and thoroughness; and the cultivation of certain general attitudes such as dissatisfaction with failure*

¹ a) "Close vital contact of Latin and English studies is for the advantage of both, and, what is still more important, for the advantage of a large, liberal, deep-rooted humanism, pursued by scientific method, and remote alike from shallow dilettantism and narrow pedantry."—"Report of British Prime Ministers Joint Committee of Classics and English." Included in J. W. Mackail, *Classical Studies*, pp. 83-99. New York: Macmillan Co., 1926.

b) Aubrey A. Douglass, *op. cit.*, 350, 353, 383.

or with partial success."² One of the worst faults of the present four-year Latin course is that, on account of the difficulty of the work and the lack of sufficient drill, most pupils fail to get a thorough knowledge of the essentials but go ahead in a hazy, superficial way, which invites bluffing and dishonesty. The demoralization inevitable under such circumstances often outweighs the value of the few facts acquired. From the standpoint of character-training, such pupils are going backward, and a fair balance sheet would show that their Latin work often represents a net loss rather than a gain. Many a Latin class is conducted in such a way as to put a premium on dishonest preparation. No subject matter is valuable enough to compensate for such habit-formation. A well planned course should have such careful adjustment between subject matter and drill as would afford a maximum of accuracy and thoroughness and such limitations as would bring the total field within the reach of the weaker members of the class.

8. *The syllabus for a general-language course should be definite but flexible*, adaptable to either the 6-3-3 or the 8-4 plan of organization. This adaptation would not be difficult as the order of the presentation of the subject matter would naturally put the general, exploratory part of the course in the seventh and eighth grades. In schools of the 8-4 type the work of the ninth grade of the junior high school would be covered largely by the syllabus for pupils beginning the study of a foreign language in the first year of the high school. The syllabus would be practically the same for both plans, the difference being mainly a matter of the arrangement of the textbooks. In either case, the distribution of topics would be somewhat as follows: Seventh year: outline of the historical background of the English language; parts of speech; prefixes, suffixes, and about one hundred word stems; structure of simple sentences; spelling and pronunciation. Eighth year: continuation of word study, with the addition of about two hundred new basic words; sentence analysis; participles, infinitives, and subordinate clauses in English; common errors in English spelling and pronunciation; outline of inflection in English with parallels in foreign languages. Ninth year: continuation of word study with the addition of two hundred new words; sentence

² *The Classical Investigation*, Part One, p. 55.

analysis completed and reviewed; parallel study of regular inflections in English and foreign languages; application of Latin and French to English spelling and pronunciation; parallel study of simple sentences and case constructions in English and foreign languages; study of errors in syntax and sentence structure in English; general review of word study; general review of English grammar and sentence analysis.

The object of introducing the elements of Latin inflection in a general-language course is threefold. In the first place, it is the most effective way of making inflection clear in English and other modern languages; second, it supplies the necessary material for the explanation of the Latin element in English and at the same time lays the foundation for the study of foreign language later; finally, it furnishes excellent exploratory material for foreign-language purposes and affords a very simple and reliable prognosis of language ability. The amount of actual Latin to be learned is not large, can be most effectively taught at this stage, and has a general value which is enormous in comparison with the short time required to learn it. It can be presented so gradually and simply that it can be learned thoroughly by the slowest pupils. If the fundamental forms, vocabulary, and syntax of first-year Latin were actually mastered by pupils before the reading of connected, periodic Latin is begun, most of the difficulties of secondary-school Latin would disappear. On account of lack of time for sufficient drill and repetition, few, if any, high-school pupils ever really learn all the elementary work thoroughly; this weakness makes much of the later work useless and pathetic floundering.¹

¹ During the several years in which the writer has conducted classes in methods of teaching Latin, partly in the summer school at Cornell University and partly in the evening classes of the College of the City of New York, with classes composed chiefly of students who have specialized in Latin in prominent eastern colleges, he has never found a student who was infallible in first-year Latin work, and the median mark on tests in first-year form work is usually about the same as that of regular second-year high-school classes. Such inaccuracy would be intolerable in any kind of business. "In the Miller-Briggs study of classroom translations of Cicero it was found that 34 per cent of the translations showed complete failure to comprehend the thought of the passage and that an additional 40 per cent fell below the standard of acceptable English." "The effort to secure from pupils a translation of the entire reading assignment of average length inevitably results in the acceptance of slovenly 'translation English,' which, while it may not lower the pupil's actual standard of English, certainly will not raise it."—*The Classical Investigation*, Part One, pp. 47-48, 202.

In cases where the organization of an introductory language course in the seventh and eighth grades is not feasible, it is possible to handle the regular four-year course in such a way as to reduce considerably the usual high mortality. During an eight-year study of the problem in the Newtown High School, New York City, we have found that pupils from the lowest third of an elementary-school graduating class seldom succeed in the regular high-school course in foreign language, and any from the lower half of a class are liable to have trouble with Latin. It is always advisable to test the pupils in a beginning Latin class on their knowledge of English grammar and to transfer to an easier subject those showing glaring deficiencies.¹

We tried for several years the organization of slow-moving classes for the less capable pupils, taking three terms for the first year's work and, so far as the school program would permit, three terms for the second year's work. The results were not satisfactory,² chiefly because merely diluting the course will not enable the weaker pupils to reach eventually the proficiency demanded by our college-preparatory high-school Latin syllabus.³ What the weaker pupils need is a simplified course with the technicalities of Latin removed and deferred for the advanced course, which the slower pupils will not take. It is practically impossible, except with classes above the average in ability, to cover the regular course with the addition of the word study, sentence analysis, and grammar review which all

¹ In New York City the Board of Superintendents has debarred the lowest third of the elementary-school graduates from taking a foreign language or algebra in their first term of high-school work unless they can get special permission from the high-school principal.

² The same plan was tried in the Boys' High School of Brooklyn about ten years ago but was finally abandoned because it was found that the gain in the advancement of pupils was not great enough to justify the trouble and confusion involved.

³ a) "The idea of one free public school system for all children alike is typically American, and was born and has grown up with our theory of democratic equality. It has the same fundamental weakness that has vitiated so many similar idealistic projects—the stubborn fact that no training, no equality of opportunity, no leveling of environment, no enrichment of advantages, can so far modify Nature's endowment as to make six-story minds where the Creator put but three."—Clyde R. Jeffords and Claude F. Walker, *The High Schools of New York City*, p. 40. New York: High School Teachers' Association of New York City, 1921.

b) Aubrey A. Douglass, *op. cit.*, pp. 194-224.

pupils should have. Consequently, we have moved the technicalities of Latin grammar, including the subjunctive, irregular verbs, and the more difficult syntax, into the third term and have made room there by postponing most of Caesar until the fourth term, leaving the first year free for those elements of Latin which can be correlated satisfactorily with English grammar and word study. By the time the fourth term and technical Latin are reached, eliminations have taken place three times, and most of the weaker pupils either have been brought up to par or have dropped out, so that we have nearly 100 per cent passing the Regents' examinations in Caesar at the end of the fourth term. The pupils who are unable to come up to the standard required for technical Latin have had the benefit of a thorough course in linguistic fundamentals and are frequently able to do satisfactory work in a modern language after this preliminary training in Latin. Many of them pass fourth-term Latin on the second trial, and a few succeed in passing the New York State Regents' comprehensive examination in three years of Latin (Latin Three Years) at the end of the sixth term.

Our experience with this simplified course leads us to believe that a three-year exploratory general-language course, such as has been outlined in this article, would be highly profitable both for the stronger pupils who go on with the advanced Latin course and for all others, whether they take up the study of foreign language or not. English grammar, English and Latin word study, and elementary Latin are so innately related and so mutually benefited by correlation¹ that all studies dependent on a knowledge of English would be helped by the introduction of this new general-language course.

Were this introductory course generally adopted, it seems highly probable that pupils wishing to offer Latin for college entrance would find it much easier to complete the conventional course. The work of the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grades would probably remain substantially in the form recommended in the report of the Classical Investigation, required only of pupils offering Latin for college entrance.

In this way, American secondary-school Latin would have completed its evolution, coming back to the original six-year program of

¹ Charles Hubbard Judd, *Psychology of High-School Subjects*, pp. 220-21.

the upper-class European schools but enlarged and enriched by the universal linguistic training afforded by the correlation of elementary Latin with English grammar and word study in the introductory general-language course.

The problem, however, of adjusting the ancient Latin course to the modern American secondary school is still far from a satisfactory solution. Our present Latin syllabus is a compromise, aimed broadly and vaguely at everything and hitting nothing exactly. It is too technical for general training and too superficial for specialization. Some parts of it have unquestionable value for general linguistic training; other parts belong to the narrow field of "Latin as Latin"; much of it is an anachronistic relic and should be discarded.

Our chief concern at present is the organization of the lower half of the course—the junior high school section, dealing with Latin merely as one factor in a general-language exploratory course. When that fundamental work has been satisfactorily adjusted, we shall be better prepared to consider the more difficult and less important problem of evaluating the potential educational functions of "Latin as Latin" in the senior high school curriculum.

A HIGH SCHOOL ON THE HIGH SEAS

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In September, 1926, the world's first "floating university" sailed out of New York harbor under the auspices of the University Travel Association, of New York City, bound around the world with five hundred young men and women and a college faculty of forty-five. It was a great experiment—a test of the possibilities of combining regular classroom study with the education of travel. As evidence of the serious purpose of the undertaking, it need only be said that the floating university had as its president Charles F. Thwing, president emeritus of Western Reserve University and president of the National Association of Phi Beta Kappa, and included in its faculty such prominent educators as James E. Lough, of New York University; Albert K. Heckle, dean of men at the University of Missouri; George E. Howes, dean of Williams College; and Henry J. Allen, ex-governor of Kansas, who gave courses in journalism.

In May, 1927, the SS. "Ryndam"—campus, classrooms, and dormitory afloat—returned from its voyage to report enthusiastically that the experiment had been successful and that higher education on the high seas is practicable. It was agreed that the floating university should become a permanent institution, and announcement that the SS. "Ryndam" would sail again on September 20 was made.¹ One change in the character of the cruise was agreed upon, however—that it should no longer be coeducational. Under cruise conditions, coeducation had been proved inadvisable. At the same time, the number of students was reduced from 500 to 375 in order to promote the educational aspects of the voyage.

While the cruise of the SS. "Ryndam" was designed to experiment with college and university students, the field of possibilities has opened up since then, and the possibility of a high school or a preparatory school afloat is one of them.

¹ Necessary delay in completing plans for the second cruise resulted in slow registration of students. For this reason, the sailing date has been postponed to September, 1928.

There was a sufficiently large group of young men on the pioneer voyage to form a nucleus of a preparatory-school department. The opportunity was unforeseen, but nevertheless it was gladly accepted. As a result of the examination made, the association made definite plans for a junior department on the second cruise.

The question at once arises in the minds of educators, What can a preparatory school afloat bring to the student of high-school age? Certainly it is an interesting question and deserves an answer.

The seagoing school can do for the younger student what it does for the college or university student. Let us look at the general significance of the newly founded educational institution, the floating university.

The college afloat permits the application of the laboratory method of teaching to many subjects which have long called for it. Heretofore, it has been impossible to teach such subjects as art, economics, sociology, government, and geography by the laboratory or observational method except in certain large cities and not always there. Practical difficulties stood in the way. It was nevertheless recognized by prominent educators that courses in any of these subjects would profit by an application of the laboratory method just as physics, chemistry, botany, and geology have been revolutionized by the addition of an element of direct observation to the former dry textbook study.

It does not require argument to demonstrate that what direct observation does to vivify and make real subjects of college or university grade it can do for subjects of high-school grade. It may, of course, be argued that high-school subjects are more elementary, but take Latin as an example. Visits to scenes of Roman history do not fit perfectly under the head of the laboratory method, but the case is very closely parallel to it. At any rate, it is certain that the student whose study of Cicero, for instance, includes a visit to the Forum and whose study of Cicero's orations includes a personal knowledge of the scene gains a far more vivid insight into the human relations of the subject he is studying and hence a more active interest in it than does the student who lacks these stimulating experiences. The student of history who has passed Gibraltar, who has traversed foreign seas, who has looked upon strange peoples, and who knows at first hand the sweltering heat and icy blasts met by wandering peo-

ples and conquering armies has acquired a permanent background and a personal sympathy that go far toward making the information he gathers from formal education significant to him.

However, there is a great deal more to be said. Over and above these general advantages, there are special advantages.

Every year the high schools and preparatory schools of the country graduate young men who are physically and mentally too young to enter college. It has been the writer's experience that such students ruin their chances when they go directly to the higher institutions of learning. Their first year is almost wasted, and the bad start which they make colors their college life from start to finish. This is one of the serious problems which education faces today, and it is a problem which the floating university is attacking.

To such young men, a college afloat organized to receive them offers a valuable stepping-stone. A trip around the world would alone do a great deal for these young men. It would send them to college with a far better background than their fellows had and would, besides, tide them over the danger period. The floating university, however, does this and more—it gives them a year of school study and prevents the inevitable loss of momentum.

The round-the-world college also helps attack the problem of what to do with the young man who for one reason or another must return to high school to complete his work in a few subjects. Ordinarily, if he returns to the school he has been attending, he finds little work to do and a great deal of idleness. He forms lazy habits. He loses the knack of studying. The floating university, however, gives him the opportunity to do the work demanded and at the same time to broaden his view of life and things by travel. Instead of wasting his time, he acquires a background which is superior to that of his companions on shore.

There can be no question but that the floating university is in an infancy that promises a lusty manhood in the near future. The important thing was to prove that a college afloat is practicable. Now that this has been proved, the development of the whole project is simply a matter of time. That the larger undertaking, comprising a whole fleet of ships perhaps, will include a preparatory-school department at least is not only desirable but necessary.

THE FACTOR OF INTELLIGENCE IN SCHOOL FAILURES

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Failures are prevalent in any school having an unselected body of pupils. The study here reported is not a treatment of remedial measures. It is primarily concerned with the determination of the types of pupils failing. Is intelligence a factor in school failures? Do teachers think that inferior mental ability causes many pupils to fail?

All the cases investigated in connection with this study were in schools having a passing mark of 70 or C. Any mark below this determined standard is unsatisfactory and is considered a failure for the marking period for which it is reported. No common practice was observed as to the length of the marking periods. Terms, quarters, and six-week intervals were found in the different schools. It was necessary, therefore, to define a common unit of time for all cases tested in the several schools and to use the definition in connection with the element of failure. Two statements were found to be adequate for this purpose: (1) A failure may be indicated by a subject mark below 70 or C at any time in the school year if the subject is dropped by the pupil. The pupil may drop the subject voluntarily or at the suggestion of the principal or teacher. (2) A failure may be indicated by a subject mark below 70 or C if this mark has continued from the first of the year to March in one or more of the fundamental subjects.

Failures in the fundamental subjects were used in order to make the conditions comparable. These subjects receive an allotment of four or five recitation periods a week as contrasted with one or two recitation periods a week for the other school subjects. These subjects in Grades VII and VIII are as follows: reading, arithmetic, history, geography, and oral and written language.

The school records were accepted as satisfactory evidence of fail-

ure. This fact may cause a slight error in some of the cases included, as only one teacher judged the relative merits of the pupils in each of two rooms tested, and several pupils had failed in each room. Possibly a small number of pupils were misplaced and some included who should not have been judged to be failing. The personal equation and the judgment of individual teachers are, of course, matters of some importance in the whole range of cases reported. As standard achievement tests are not now available in all subjects, it would be difficult to remove the subjective nature of ratings given by teachers.

Since all the tests were given during the month of March (1926) and the school year for all the pupils tested began on the same date, the lapse of time between the teaching of the first and the last pupil was not a problem. However, on account of the difference in the ranking periods, some pupils may have been tested who were meeting or exceeding the minimum passing requirement at the time of the test. In most instances the teachers were asked to give an opinion on this point, and many pupils were excused from the test.

The boys and girls were not separated in this study. Failures in any grade from the seventh to the eleventh and with any teacher were considered to be equivalent. As the cases reported in Grades IX, X, and XI are few, the failures in the required and elective subjects have not been separately evaluated or tabulated. Therefore, for the reasons herein stated, all pupil-subject failures used in this study have been given equal weight.

The cases selected for this study were in schools located in five towns in Connecticut. One hundred pupil failures include all the cases of failure found in these towns. There was no selection within this class. It was assumed that at least one hundred cases should be tested in order to make the study sufficiently valid.

The writer had been visiting six of the nine school buildings from which pupils were tested for six years and the other three for two years. He had previously given many group and individual tests to the pupils selected for this study. The pupils were therefore not working with a strange examiner. The writer can recall only one case of a pupil's condition, as observed and known, being such as to make testing inadvisable.

The tests were conducted in an unoccupied classroom or teachers' rest room. Distractions and interruptions were avoided. No persons other than the pupil and the examiner were present in the room at any time when a test was being given.

The time employed in giving a single test ranged from fifty to ninety minutes. The average was about sixty-five or seventy minutes. As the pupils tested were in the upper years of school, the question of fatigue was not apparent in many instances. The test was divided for a few very slow pupils and given on different days.¹ The chronological age of a pupil was computed from his last birthday.

TABLE I
DISTRIBUTION OF THE PUPILS ON THE BASIS OF TOWN AND GRADE

TOWN	GRADES					TOTAL
	VII	VIII	IX	X	XI	
A.....	4	3	4	3	0	14
B.....	15	7	8	10	3	43
C.....	5	10	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	4	0	28
D.....	2	3	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	1	1	11
E.....	3	1	0 $\frac{1}{2}$	0	0	4
Total.....	29	24	25	18	4	100

The instructions given by Terman in *The Measurement of Intelligence* were followed carefully. The directions for each test were memorized by the examiner and given verbatim. The long form, or complete test, was given for each year used in the scale; comprehensiveness and accuracy were thus insured. All the materials required for the Stanford Revision of the Binet-Simon Tests were at hand. The standard record booklets were used.

Table I shows the number of cases by towns and grades which were selected for this study. The four cases in Grade XI were tested at the request of the principals.

Town E has no local public school for pupils beyond the eighth grade. It will be noted that Town B had a much larger number of

¹ Lewis M. Terman, *The Measurement of Intelligence*, pp. 127-29. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1916.

failures than did any one of the other towns. This may be due in part to the much larger school enrolment.

Towns A, B, C, and D maintain local high schools. Each school offers commercial work. Town B has a domestic arts department in its high school. Other courses are academic and largely college preparatory in content. The pupil desiring a classical preparation is well provided with courses. The schools are not offering courses

TABLE II
DISTRIBUTION OF THE PUPILS ON THE BASIS OF THEIR
CHRONOLOGICAL AGES

Age in Years and Months	Number of Pupils
12-3 to 12-9	4
12-9 to 13-3	7
13-3 to 13-9	6
13-9 to 14-3	11
14-3 to 14-9	15
14-9 to 15-3	14
15-3 to 15-9	10
15-9 to 16-3	11
16-3 to 16-9	10
16-9 to 17-3	6
17-3 to 17-9	4
17-9 to 18-3	2
Total	100

which will attract and hold all pupils. Many pupils must be eliminated because their needs are not considered. This fact indicates the reason for fewer failures in the upper grades.

Tables II, III, and IV show the chronological ages, the mental ages, and the I.Q.'s of the pupils tested. Table V shows the subjects in which the pupils tested had failed.

It is common for a teacher to think that certain pupils in her room are lazy or uninterested. Parents are, of course, likely to place all blame on the teacher and her poor technique even though the facts may be directly opposed to this conclusion. There are many possible solutions for these cases, but, when all available means have been employed, some individuals may still fail to meet an acceptable

standard of accomplishment. These conditions may be somewhat alleviated by determining the native abilities of the pupils.

TABLE III
DISTRIBUTION OF THE PUPILS ON THE BASIS OF
THEIR MENTAL AGES

Age in Years and Months	Number of Pupils
9-3 to 9-9.....	2
9-9 to 10-3.....	3
10-3 to 10-9.....	1
10-9 to 11-3.....	8
11-3 to 11-9.....	10
11-9 to 12-3.....	11
12-3 to 12-9.....	11
12-9 to 13-3.....	10
13-3 to 13-9.....	9
13-9 to 14-3.....	9
14-3 to 14-9.....	11
14-9 to 15-3.....	7
15-3 to 15-9.....	3
15-9 to 16-3.....	2
16-3 to 16-9.....	3
Total.....	100

TABLE IV
DISTRIBUTION OF THE PUPILS ON THE BASIS OF THEIR I.Q.'s

I.Q.	Number of Pupils
55- 59.....	1
60- 64.....	0
65- 69.....	2
70- 74.....	5
75- 79.....	13
80- 84.....	15
85- 89.....	20
90- 94.....	27
95- 99.....	10
100-104.....	4
105-109.....	2
110-114.....	1
Total.....	100

Table VI shows the percentage of the pupils in each range of I. Q.'s in the classification by Terman.¹

TABLE V
PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF THE PUPIL-SUBJECT FAILURES

Subject	Number of Pupils	Percentage of Total Pupil-Subject Failures
English.....	5	3.2
Algebra.....	5	3.2
Elementary business.....	2	1.3
Typewriting.....	1	0.6
Shorthand.....	1	0.6
Science.....	9	5.7
French.....	8	5.1
Modern history.....	1	0.6
World-history.....	7	4.5
Mathematics.....	7	4.5
Latin.....	5	3.2
Geometry.....	1	0.6
Civics.....	6	3.8
Arithmetic.....	27	17.2
History.....	25	15.9
Oral and written language.....	25	15.9
Reading.....	15	9.6
Geography.....	7	4.5
Total.....	157	100.0

TABLE VI
PERCENTAGE OF THE PUPILS IN EACH RANGE OF I.Q.'s IN
THE CLASSIFICATION BY TERMAN

Range of I.Q.'s	Percentage of Pupils
110-120.....	1.0
90-110.....	43.0
80-90.....	35.0
70-80.....	18.0
Below 70.....	3.0
Total.....	100.0

Table VII shows the percentage distributions of 905 unselected children² and the 100 selected failures on the basis of their I.Q.'s.

¹ Lewis M. Terman, *op. cit.*, p. 79.

² *Ibid.*, p. 66.

TABLE VII
PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTIONS OF 905 UNSELECTED CHILDREN
AND THE 100 SELECTED FAILURES ON THE
BASIS OF THEIR I.Q.'s

Range of I.Q.'s	Percentage of 905 Unselected Children	Percentage of 100 Selected Failures
136-145.....	0.55
126-135.....	2.3
116-125.....	9.0
106-115.....	23.1	3.0
96-105.....	33.9	13.0
86- 95.....	20.1	45.0
76- 85.....	8.6	20.0
66- 75.....	2.3	9.0
56- 65.....	0.33	1.0
Total.....	100.18	100.0

The following questionnaire was sent to 120 teachers of Grades VII-XII.

WHY ARE PUPILS FAILING IN SCHOOL?

This year certain pupils will not receive a passing mark in one or more subjects taught by you. Why do they fail?

Please do not talk with other persons concerning this sheet before you have recorded your opinion.

You probably have in mind certain outstanding reasons for the pupil failures occurring in your school this year. A partial list of reasons is given below for your convenience. Make additions if you wish.

Please use the following code for indicating your estimate: Rank the most outstanding reason, 1; the next, 2; and continue until at least five reasons have been indicated.

- Irregular school attendance—absence
- Irregular school attendance—sickness
- Crowded school conditions
- School standards too high
- Undernourishment
- Faulty preparation
- Late hours, dances, parties, movies
- Low mentality
- Lack of home discipline
- Lack of co-operation between school and parents
- Lack of school provision for individual differences
- Poor attitude—discipline

Laziness

Lack of purpose—vocational

How many years have you been teaching?

What grade or grades are you now teaching?

Teachers of Grades VII-XII in the schools in thirty-two towns were supplied with this form and requested to reply. Sixteen of these

TABLE VIII

CAUSES OF FAILURE AS REPORTED BY EIGHTY-TWO TEACHERS

Cause of Failure	Rank									
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Irregular school attendance—absence.....	7	4	3	7	11	2
Irregular school attendance—sickness.....	2	2	2	1	4	1	1
Crowded school conditions.....	2	1	3	2	2	1	1
School standards too high.....	1
Undernourishment.....	1	1	2	1	1	2
Faulty preparation.....	10	13	11	11	5	1	1	1
Late hours, dances, parties, movies.....	2	8	6	14	9	1
Low mentality.....	28	10	10	4	6	2	1
Lack of home discipline.....	3	8	4	8	3	2	3	1	2
Lack of co-operation between school and parents.....	2	5	4	3	5	1	1	1
Lack of school provision for individual differences.....	4	4	4	3	5	3	3	2
Poor attitude—discipline.....	3	3	9	4	7	3	2	1
Laziness.....	17	18	16	7	8	1
Lack of purpose—vocational.....	1	3	7	10	9	4	2
Faulty instruction.....	1
Excessive home duties.....	1
Time wasted.....	1	1
Lack of application.....	1
Lack of interest.....	1
Lack of medical attention.....	1
Total.....	82	82	82	79	75	22	11	8	5	2

towns do not maintain a local public school for pupils beyond the eighth grade. This means that the replies from sixteen, or 50 per cent, of the towns came from teachers in Grade VII or VIII, and in several instances a teacher had more than one grade.

These towns represent the small towns of Connecticut. The population of any town in this group is less than 5,000, and twenty-five of the towns have populations of less than 2,500.

Table VIII shows the causes of pupil-subject failures as reported by eighty-two teachers.

Table IX is a summary of the replies to the questionnaire. This table is derived from Table VIII. For the purpose of addition, replies of the first order were considered as whole numbers; replies of the second order were given one-half weight; third order, one-third; fourth order, one-fourth; etc.

TABLE IX
CAUSES OF FAILURE ARRANGED ACCORDING TO THE RANKS
ASSIGNED BY THE TEACHERS

Cause of Failure	Percentage
Low mentality.....	20.3
Laziness.....	18.1
Faulty preparation.....	12.7
Irregular school attendance—absence.....	7.4
Late hours, dances, parties, movies.....	7.0
Lack of home discipline.....	6.3
Poor attitude—discipline.....	5.6
Lack of school provision for individual differences.....	5.3
Lack of purpose—vocational.....	5.3
Lack of co-operation between school and parents.....	4.2
Irregular school attendance—sickness.....	2.6
Crowded school conditions.....	2.4
Undernourishment.....	1.0
Faulty instruction.....	0.52
Time wasted.....	0.30
Excessive home duties.....	0.26
Lack of medical attention.....	0.26
Lack of application.....	0.17
School standards too high.....	0.13
Lack of interest.....	0.13

CONCLUSIONS

(1) From observation, it is evident that there is a high correlation between the mentality of a pupil and the quality and amount of school work he will perform. (2) Failure in school work indicates a low type of mentality. (3) Teachers think that school failures are due to low mentality; this is contrary to the general opinion that teachers

do not appreciate the degree of mentality of pupils, especially in the elementary schools.

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THE NEWSPAPER IN HIGH-SCHOOL HISTORY CLASSES

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The far-reaching influence of the newspaper as an American institution needs no demonstration here. It suffices to say that, from the time that the beginning of one's life is announced in the "Births" column until the time that its close is noted among the "Deaths," the newspaper environs the life of each individual. The American, fully conversant with the affairs of the times, must read the newspaper each day; weekly or monthly reviews of the news will not do.

However, the influence of the newspaper on the individual may be either positive or negative, entirely according to the attitude he maintains toward it. Whether this attitude is correctly or incorrectly formed depends in large measure on the early methods of approach to it. So important has the inculcation of proper methods of approach to the newspaper seemed to teachers in the Central High School, Cleveland, that they have evolved in the history classes the following technique, peculiarly designed to teach the reading of the daily newspaper. The aim, it will be noted, is not to give a course in current events but rather to train pupils in the last two or three years of public-school life in order that they may read the newspaper intelligently and digest its news items from day to day.

One day each week is set aside from the regular work in history for the study of the newspaper. At the beginning of the semester four or five periods are devoted to the teaching of the meaning of news value. During this time the pupils bring in samples from the various local papers and construct from them what they believe are fair and intelligent tests. A bulletin board is begun at this time also, and the pupils are encouraged to take pride in submitting items for it. Although at the beginning the teacher must exercise careful supervision over the choice of this material, the pupils are allowed comparatively early to pass judgment on the items and to choose

those which should be given a place on the board. The notebook, too, is begun at this time. The pupils are asked to bring clippings each day and to paste them in books, arranging the items by countries for purposes of easier checking. The books are checked in class each week by the teacher, and a special reward mark is given to the pupil whose book is adjudged the best.

A test of ten questions is given each week. The test covers the news of the past seven days but touches only on such items as have appeared in all the local papers. All questions are factual but subject to discussion. They are of the type that may be answered in a word or two or, at most, in one line. While there may be several parts to a question, the parts are always clearly delineated. The questions are separated into two groups to cover all possible interests. Thus, the first five questions cover items outside the United States, while the next four questions cover items varying in interest from the United States, states other than Ohio, Ohio, county or city, to the Central High School. The last question always concerns sports and activities of the entire United States. The questions are varied slightly from class to class in order to prevent the too ready passing around of correct answers among the pupils.

The technique of giving the test is important. During its progress the pupils are permitted to have on their desks nothing except the paper used for the test and one other sheet of the same paper. The second sheet must be so placed as to cover the answer to each question as soon as it is completed. This arrangement serves effectually to check efforts at copying answers or getting hints from neighboring pupils. As soon as the last answer has been written, the pencils are placed on the desks and not lifted until all papers have been exchanged for marking. To obviate the chance of corrections by friends, a double exchange is insisted on. All markings are made on the right-hand margin of the paper. Many of the answers, which are given correctly by the pupils, lead to valuable discussions of the policies involved or of the historical background of the news item. After all the papers have been marked and returned to their owners, an opportunity is given to challenge the marking of any question. All corrections in marking are made by the teacher. Averaging by rows is frequently resorted to as an incentive to greater effort.

The scores on the tests are not very high except in those classes in which the work has been given at least one semester. In a XII B class, for example, a mark between 50 and 60 is considered "good"; 80 and 90 denote exceptional attainment. As a general rule, a mark of 30 or above indicates that the pupil has read the newspaper, while any mark below 15 is conclusive proof that the pupil has done no reading during the period covered by the test. On the following questions given in one of the weekly tests (January 4, 1927) to a class of thirty-three XII B pupils in United States history, the median mark was 58.

1. What is the question on which several Columbia University professors expressed themselves in print during the past week? (The administration at Washington took exception to their opinion.) *Answer:* The European debt.

2. (a) What is the name of the new Emperor of Japan? (b) What is his number in the line of Japanese emperors? *Answer:* (a) Hirohito; (b) 124th.

3. What European country last week was the object of a petition of protest by the American Jewish Congress? *Answer:* Roumania.

4. What European nation made a ten-year arbitration treaty with Germany last week? *Answer:* Italy.

5. To what or to whom do these terms refer in the news of the day: (a) Sacasa; (b) Diaz? *Answer:* (a) Liberal and (b) conservative leaders in Nicaragua.

6. Give the main suggestion contained in the report of the Hoover Commission with reference to a transportation problem involving the United States. *Answer:* Favoring of the St. Lawrence Canal.

7. What change in the method of controlling the Philippines was suggested by Carmi Thompson in his report to President Coolidge? *Answer:* Change from military to civil head of government.

8. (a) What is the name of the large river in the United States which has caused trouble by overflowing its banks? (b) What large city is partly inundated? *Answer:* (a) Tennessee; (b) Nashville.

9. (a) What is the name of the man who will carry on research work under the \$200,000 fund donated to Case University by Mr. Swazey? (b) What is his subject? *Answer:* (a) Professor Miller; (b) physics.

10. (a) What team did Stanford play on New Year's Day? (b) What was the score? (c) How many games has the Cleveland city basket-ball team lost this season? (d) Name two teams in major-league baseball involved in the Risberg scandals. *Answer:* (a) Alabama; (b) 7-7; (c) two; (d) Chicago and Detroit.

The objectives obtaining in a course in newspaper reading as here outlined are twofold—educational and social. In the first place, such an attempt to train pupils should obviously go far toward de-

veloping the valuable habit of intelligent and continued reading of the daily newspaper. The reading habit is broadened, too, from that of perusing only the comic strips and the headlines to that of reading other items of equal interest and greater importance. Such a habit naturally leads to an intelligent interest in the affairs of everyday life. Consequently, a pertinent amount of factual knowledge is gained. As cabinets fall, ministries change, and kings die, the pupils become conversant with the various types of government of the countries of the world. They learn the structure of governments, how administration changes hands, and how the personnel attempt to solve the peculiar problems confronting them. It is through the discussion of these problems that the pupil is made to realize, as he steps out from his courses in European history, that what he has learned there is closely tied up with what is going on in the world today. In addition, he gains a still greater appreciation of the continuity of history by following closely the policies carried out by the various officials from day to day as they are outlined in the daily news. In this manner the pupil becomes acquainted with the actors on the public stage of present-day history. Through the appeal that is thus made to his inherent ideals of hero-worship, he comes to realize the problems of the man who is constantly in the public eye.

Furthermore, the proper critical attitude is readily fostered. The pupil is made to realize that, before he may criticize the man in public office, he must have at hand a sufficient command of reliable facts. He learns the type of answer which should be demanded of the public servant in explanation of his public acts. He comes to respect the efforts of the man in a public position without losing the feeling that he has the right to criticize him as a public servant. Without having his views made entirely partisan, he can be brought to detect the political motives that give color to many of the acts of men in public life. Finally, the sympathies of the pupil will be broadened as he comes to realize from his daily contact with the news items that problems such as poverty, unemployment, strikes, and epidemics are universal and not by any means either peculiar to the country in which he lives or characteristic of it.

Since pupils trained to read the newspaper will have a greater fund of information from which to draw for purposes of conversation,

it follows naturally that they will mingle to far better advantage socially. By means of the broadening influence gained in a proper interpretation and evaluation of the items covering the news of the entire world, they can, as some of them have been known to do, completely change the atmosphere of the home by raising the standards of table and parlor conversation. The influence of such pupils may be far-reaching. By virtue of their habit of keeping constantly in mind the issues to be decided in elections, they may become distinct factors in keeping up the interest of a certain definite portion of the general electorate. In a still broader sense, the awakened interest in international affairs might in time go far in developing a greater tolerance of the intermingling of national and racial groups in this country, and it might lead to more sympathetic methods in the dealings of the United States with the other nations of the world.

CHECKING PUPILS' PERSONAL TRAITS

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For some time administrators have found it advisable to check and record the personal traits of pupils as well as to record their marks and the results of physical examinations. The records are of real value when an employer comes to the administrator for some definite information about a pupil or someone who has been a pupil. The employer is very often less interested in the scholastic record than in the record of personal traits. He wants to know about the honesty, punctuality, carefulness, and other qualities of the pupil. To give this information without definite reference to a permanent record is not fair to the pupil since the administrator is likely to be partial or to recall only certain outstanding facts about the pupil. If the pupil has been sent to the office repeatedly, he may get a very low rating.

The record sheet is also of value in making out reports for colleges and universities. These institutions want information about the pupil covering more items than his scholastic rating.

In the autumn of 1925 the Augusta High School, Augusta, Kansas, adopted the Cumulative High School Record as a permanent record. This record requires a rating of the pupil on five points—ability to learn, industry and attitude toward work, leadership, team work, and personal and social character. It was decided that the fairest way to make this rating would be to have every pupil rated on these points by each of his teachers. This meant that each pupil would be rated by from three to seven different teachers, since he carries four subjects, has study hall, takes physical education, and may take music.

It was found difficult to rate the pupils since there were no attributes given under each of the five headings. As the teachers had different ideas as to what came under each heading, the rating was not uniform. In order to make the rating more definite and uniform,

a study of the record was made in the autumn of 1926. Each of the sixteen teachers was given a sheet of paper listing the five headings and was asked to put under each heading what he thought should be taken into consideration in rating the pupil on this trait. After the sheets were returned, a committee tabulated the results and worked out a rating sheet. At a faculty meeting this sheet was discussed, and some changes were made. The final form was then drafted. The items included are as follows:

SCORE SHEET

Directions for scoring.—Use 1 to 5 for each quality.

- | | |
|------------|---------------------------|
| 1—Superior | 4—Fair |
| 2—Strong | 5—Poor |
| 3—Medium | 0—No knowledge of quality |

1. Ability to learn is determined by your power to—
 - a) Think—to be able to grasp ideas
 - b) Reason—to discriminate between essentials and nonessentials
 - c) Memorize and recall what has been learned
 - d) Concentrate—on the work at hand
 - e) Develop self-reliance—not to depend on help
 - f) Use the fundamental processes—reading, spelling, writing, and arithmetic
2. Industry and attitude toward work are shown by your—
 - a) Response to your environment
 - b) Interest in, and attention to, your work
 - c) Carefulness—accuracy, thoroughness, promptness
 - d) Industry—not wasting time
 - e) Working up to your ability
 - f) Regularity—steadiness, daily preparation
 - g) Having materials on hand—assignment books, notebooks, sharp pencils, paper, books, etc.
 - h) Working without supervision
 - i) Working outside of school—being employed
 - j) Participation in extra-curriculum activities
 - k) Conduct—in school, at home, and in general
 - l) Refraining from useless arguing
3. Leadership is demonstrated by your—
 - a) Dependableness
 - b) Good judgment and tact
 - c) Self-control
 - d) Self-confidence
 - e) Initiative, originality, ingenuity

- f) Perseverance—staying with a thing
- g) Ability to see that things are done—executive ability
- h) Punctuality—in meeting obligations and appointments
- i) Being democratic—toward fellow pupils
- j) Recognition as a leader by the student body
- 4. Team work is developed by your—
 - a) Unselfish and sympathetic attitude
 - b) Sportsmanship—playing hard and fair, being a good loser
 - c) Doing your work in committees, offices, and activities
 - d) Taking suggestions
 - e) Observation of all rules—gum, paper, excuses, grade cards, halls, leaving room, etc.
 - f) Paying all dues promptly
- 5. Personal and social character is judged by your—
 - a) Honesty
 - b) Neatness
 - c) Congeniality
 - d) Sincerity
 - e) Good moral habits—abstinence from alcohol, tobacco, etc.
 - f) Good manners—courteous, not stubborn or grouchy
 - g) Behavior toward the opposite sex
 - h) Appreciation of what is done for you
 - i) Respect for authority—in school, at home, and in general
 - j) Care of property—private and public
 - k) Wise use of money
 - l) Wise use of time

Each teacher is given a copy of the score sheet and as many check sheets as he needs to give each of his pupils a rating. The check sheets provide space for rating twenty-nine pupils. The items are omitted, only the letters corresponding to the attributes under each of the five headings on the score sheet being used. The teacher writes the names of the pupils and then rates each pupil on the different attributes according to the directions on the score sheet.

After the teachers have handed in their check sheets, the results are tabulated in the office. A score sheet is made out for every pupil. At the left, the teachers' ratings are copied. The score sheets are then filed alphabetically by grades. The check sheets may be returned to the teachers for reference.

Good use of the score sheets has been made in giving vocational and educational guidance to pupils. If a pupil has a high I.Q. and is

marked low on the score sheet by most of his teachers, especially in *b, c, d, e, f, g, and h* under "industry and attitude toward work," his attention is called to the fact that he is capable of better work. The parent is also informed. Definite information of this type is of far greater value than merely an opinion at the time the parent comes to the school since the teachers who are rating the pupil are rating him in comparison with the other pupils. When an employer wants information about a pupil, it can readily be supplied in definite form. If there seems to be a question as to the rating given by a teacher, the teacher can be interviewed since the record shows who gave each score.

The difficulty found with the checking is that it takes too much time. With more study a number of attributes might possibly be combined and others omitted without decreasing the efficiency of the score sheet. Because it is long, some teachers have a tendency to become careless in their checking. Carelessness usually shows up rather plainly on the score sheet. The records of the careless teachers usually differ very materially from the records of the careful teachers. The sheet is therefore a check on the teacher as well as on the pupil.

CHOOSING A TEXTBOOK IN THE SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL SOCIAL SCIENCES

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The purpose of this article is to advance an argument for a scientific method of choosing textbooks as opposed to a hit-and-miss policy of cursory examination. The usual procedure of most administrators as they approach the choice of a textbook is as follows: The book is opened to the table of contents for an examination of the chapter titles. The pages are then turned in an attempt to ascertain certain of the contents. If the individual is especially interested in a certain phase of the subject, he looks over the particular section of the book somewhat more carefully. He probably also makes note of the pictures and of the total number of pages in the book. If a salesman is present, he calls attention to a few of the salient features, or some recent advertising may cause a search for the items advertised. The book is then turned over to a teacher or teachers, and the same process is very likely repeated. If several textbooks are under consideration, the question is asked, "Which book do you think is the best?" The answer is, "I think I favor the book by ———." If most of those concerned think that ———'s book is the best, that is the book finally selected.

The writer is not criticizing this method of textbook selection. His question is, however, Just how much, or how little, acquaintance with a textbook can one get as one selects it in this manner? How many pages of content material are there in the book? How many pages are devoted to teaching aids, such as questions and topics, reference lists, pictures, maps, diagrams, tables, and summaries? How much space is taken up by the preface, by the appendixes, and by the index? These are all questions that can and should be asked.

The writer first realized some time ago that there might be such a thing as a scientific method of selecting textbooks when he was

completing a study¹ that involved a detailed topical analysis of forty-one textbooks in the social sciences—fifteen in civics, twelve in economics, four in sociology, and ten in the so-called “problems of democracy,” or introduction to social-science courses. The subject of choosing textbooks is really a by-product of the original study, but it was of almost as much value to the writer as the original study itself. The summary tables and figures indicated the situation in so startling a way that there seems no question but that some system should be followed in the choosing of textbooks.

The writer made a detailed topical analysis of the forty-one books mentioned. The method used in discovering the content material in these textbooks was that of determining the number of pages or parts of pages, and later the percentage of space, devoted to each social-science topic in each textbook. Previous to the examination of the textbooks, the writer had determined upon an outline, which, with its group headings, topics, and subtopics, covered all possible social-science material and under which all the subject material in the textbooks could be classified. The group headings in this outline are as follows:

- Communication and transportation

- The community

- Exchange

- The family

- Foreign relations, including the tariff

- Origins and beginnings of state and government

- Historical development of the United States government and general features

- National government

- State government

- County government

- City government

- The individual, including consumption

- Labor, including wealth

- Population

- Protection: Accidents

- Protection: Crime

- Protection: Fire

¹ Edwin J. Dahl, “An Analysis of Senior High School Textbooks in the Social Studies Other than History.” Unpublished Master’s Thesis, College of Education, University of Minnesota, 1926.

Protection: Handicapped
Protection: Health
Religion and the church
Production
School and education
The future
Miscellaneous

Under these group headings were classified a large number of topics and subtopics very minute in their detail.¹ The outline is one that the writer had used for several years as a teacher of a course in unified social science and was arrived at after much study of practically all the social-science textbooks. It had the additional value of being tempered and improved by the actual teaching of the material in senior high school classes. It must be understood, of course, that this outline really represents what may be called the writer's "philosophy of the social studies." In classifying the material, he placed the topics discussed in each of the textbooks in that part of the outline in which, according to his judgment, the topics seemed to fit.² Detailed and minute divisions of the subject material were made in the beginning simply to insure the proper classification of all the subject material found in the textbooks. After all the textbooks had been examined, all the items with their page amounts were consolidated under the proper group headings. The figures presented in this article are but a part of that consolidation.

To insure accuracy and at the same time to have a scientific scale with which to compare the amount of material in each textbook, the following method of determining page space was adopted. The actual number of pages of subject material in each book was first measured by a scale representing the size of the page in that book. In addition, the average number of words per page for each textbook was determined, after which the average for each book was equated

¹ The complete outline covers six typewritten letter-size pages. Its completeness is evident when mention is made of the fact that not once during the textbook examination was the writer forced to add a new topic. His outline had a place for all the subject material encountered.

² The important thing to remember so far as this outline is concerned is that it had a place for all the topics encountered. The form and arrangement are immaterial for the purposes of this study. Any other form and arrangement would have done just as well, provided, of course, the outline was complete.

to the average of the "standard" book,¹ which gave a proportionate basis of comparison for the amount of space covered by the various topics in each book. Allowance was made for small pictures, maps, tables, etc.; these were not counted in the page reckoning. Separate entries were made for topics and questions, reading references at the end of each chapter, insert illustrations, full-page pictures, and diagrams. The blank spaces at the beginning and end of each chapter were not included in the measurement. It is to be understood, therefore, that the number of pages indicated for each textbook is the actual net amount of space covered by the social-science subject material.

Table I shows the number of pages and the percentage of space devoted to subject material, teaching aids, and prefaces, etc. It should be kept in mind that this is a summary table and that the purpose of this article is to bring together general facts of the detailed study. If space permitted, the column labeled "Subject Material" could be elaborated, and the number of pages and the percentage of space in each textbook could be shown for each of the topics listed in the outline. The same could be done for "Teaching Aids." The reader could then see the actual amount of space in each book devoted to individual topics. This would, of course, bring out in more vivid relief the exact content material, but for the present purposes the summary figures are sufficient.

There is plenty of evidence in Table I to convince the reader that there are individual differences among the textbook writers represented in this group of books. Table II accentuates these differences still further.

The problem is further complicated by the fact that the books showing the greatest number of pages do not necessarily show the largest percentage of space devoted to any certain topic. For example, among the civics textbooks the book with the greatest number of pages of subject matter devotes only 75 per cent of its space to subject material. Book 6 has but 286.3 pages devoted to subject

¹ In connection with the study, the writer sent a blank of inquiry to several hundred social-science teachers in an attempt to discover current practices in the teaching of the social sciences. One question asked for the name of the textbook used. The book reported most frequently as being used in classroom work was called the "standard" book.

TABLE I

NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF PAGES IN EACH TEXTBOOK DEVOTED TO SUBJECT MATERIAL; TEACHING AIDS; AND PREFACE, ETC.

BOOK	SUBJECT MATERIAL		TEACHING AIDS		PREFACE, APPENDICES, INDEX, ETC.		TOTAL NUMBER OF PAGES
	Number of Pages	Percentage of Pages	Number of Pages	Percentage of Pages	Number of Pages	Percentage of Pages	
Civics:							
1.....	253.0	79	28.5	9	38.8	12	320.3
2.....	257.0	80	40.0	12	25.8	8	322.8
3.....	248.3	76	42.0	13	37.2	11	327.5
4.....	280.2	71	47.7	12	65.7	17	393.6
5.....	281.4	74	46.3	12	51.6	14	379.3
6.....	286.3	92	16.0	5	10.4	3	312.7
7.....	250.5	60	113.8	27	52.3	13	416.6
8.....	386.7	77	64.0	13	47.9	10	498.6
9.....	237.5	65	72.0	20	55.0	15	364.5
10.....	350.2	73	79.9	17	50.3	10	480.4
11.....	235.1	67	70.9	20	46.3	13	352.3
12.....	534.0	75	136.3	19	41.2	6	711.5
13.....	385.6	74	79.8	15	55.4	11	520.8
14.....	284.3	68	80.6	20	51.0	12	415.9
15.....	276.8	60	127.4	28	56.4	12	460.6
Economics:							
16.....	263.9	78	42.4	13	31.3	9	337.6
17.....	253.6	84	28.3	9	22.1	7	304.0
18.....	270.9	83	49.8	15	4.8	2	325.5
19.....	234.8	79	39.0	13	24.6	8	298.4
20.....	361.1	73	113.2	23	19.5	4	493.8
21.....	279.8	73	90.4	24	11.1	3	381.3
22.....	397.6	86	48.6	10	16.7	4	462.9
23.....	273.9	75	60.7	16	32.3	9	366.9
24.....	369.3	87	37.3	9	19.7	4	426.3
25.....	360.0	71	136.8	27	13.1	2	509.9
26.....	217.9	81	19.5	7	31.3	12	268.7
27.....	243.0	62	127.7	32	25.1	6	395.8
Sociology:							
28.....	298.1	94	6.7	2	13.1	4	317.9
29.....	241.3	78	57.6	19	10.9	3	309.8
30.....	165.8	82	29.2	14	7.6	4	202.6
31.....	294.6	78	66.9	18	17.6	4	379.1
Problems of democracy:							
32.....	172.8	86	25.1	13	2.4	1	200.3
33.....	332.6	77	89.3	21	10.0	2	431.9
34.....	165.3	94	0.0	0	9.7	6	175.0
35.....	298.7	75	86.1	22	11.7	3	396.5
36.....	386.9	80	60.2	12	36.9	8	484.0
37.....	242.3	82	35.8	12	16.1	6	294.2
38.....	413.0	64	189.7	29	45.1	7	647.8
39.....	468.6	82	62.3	11	37.2	7	568.1
40.....	468.1	95	9.9	2	13.1	3	491.1
41.....	342.0	71	98.4	21	38.5	8	478.9

material, but this amount is 92 per cent of the entire book. The reader can find other illustrations scattered throughout Table I.

With figures such as these before the prospective textbook-buyer, the question arises as to which book to choose. Of course, the selection will depend on the individual making the choice and the school in which the textbook is to be used. Here, according to the writer's thinking, is the clinching argument for a scientific method for the determination of content material. A detailed table, such as Table I, will show the difference in the amount of space devoted to

TABLE II

RANGE IN NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF PAGES DEVOTED TO SUBJECT MATERIAL; TEACHING AIDS; AND PREFACE, ETC., IN EACH TYPE OF TEXTBOOKS

TEXTBOOKS	RANGE IN NUMBER OF PAGES			RANGE IN PERCENTAGE OF PAGES		
	Subject Material	Teaching Aids	Preface, Appendixes, Index, Etc.	Subject Material	Teaching Aids	Preface Appendixes, Index, Etc.
Civics.	235.1-534.0	16.0-136.3	10.4-65.7	60-92	5-28	3-17
Economics.	217.9-397.6	19.5-136.8	4.8-32.3	62-87	7-32	2-12
Sociology.	165.8-298.1	6.7- 66.9	7.6-17.6	78-94	2-19	3- 4
Problems of democracy.	165.3-468.6	0.0-189.7	2.4-45.1	64-95	0-29	1- 8

each topic in the various textbooks. The teacher who desires a large part of his book devoted to questions dealing with population can choose the book that stresses that point; the economics teacher whose interest lies in production can choose the book that devotes much space to that topic; and so on.

There is the objection, of course, that an examination of several books takes time, but surely the choosing of a textbook is important enough to warrant the expenditure of a great deal of time on it. After all, it is better to take ample time in choosing than to choose blindly and then be forced to change. The last-mentioned item is of importance in these days of close watching of certain types of books by those outside the school. Careful detailed examination of the books in the first place will bring out the questionable topics before the actual choice is made, and much unpleasantness later will be avoided.

Educational Writings

REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

A basic treatise on American secondary education.—Leonard V. Koos stands out as the premier authority on American secondary education. His book *The American Secondary School*¹ is one of three major contributions in the secondary-school field which have come from his pen within a period of three years, namely, *The Junior-College Movement*, *The Junior High School, Enlarged Edition*, and *The American Secondary School*. Most school men would be willing to rest their claims to fame on the authorship of any one of these three works of Professor Koos.

Through the three books mentioned, the author has endeavored to provide a comprehensive treatment of the secondary division of the American public-school system. In *The American Secondary School* "the intent has been to afford both a fairly complete picture of the present secondary-school situation and of the trends or dynamics of secondary education. To this end, there is a substantial ballast of fact disclosing the present practices and opinions and recent shifts with respect to them" (p. vi). The organization has been very carefully worked out with the idea of providing the reader with a coherent and systematic treatment of the whole secondary-school field.

The work is organized into a single unit of nineteen chapters. It begins with a brief treatment of the growth and development of the secondary school. An interesting feature of this section of the book is the treatment accorded the extended secondary school. Two chapters are devoted to a consideration of high-school pupils: mental and physical growth during adolescence, individual differences, problems arising from individual differences, and the implications of individual differences for secondary education. Chapters iv and v set forth the aims and functions of the secondary school and consider the relations of this school to the units of the school system above and below. Five chapters are devoted to problems of organization. The distribution of secondary schools according to size and the factors which affect size; the junior high school reorganization and the movement to develop junior colleges; the limitations of rural secondary schools and methods of improving these schools; the organization, types, and problems of vocational high schools; and special types of public and private secondary-school organizations are studied and discussed. The curricu-

¹ Leonard V. Koos, *The American Secondary School*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1927. Pp. xii+756. \$2.80.

lum offerings, trends in subjects taken, criteria of subject values, methods of curriculum construction, directions of developments in the academic and special subjects, and administrative changes in programs of studies in adapting school work to individual differences are treated in four chapters of approximately one hundred pages. The remainder of the book, consisting of five chapters, considers the following topics: "Educational and Vocational Guidance"; "Allied Activities," such as extra-curriculum activities; "Community Relationships"; "The High-School Staff"; and "The School Plant and Costs." The book is concluded with two appendixes, setting forth "Lines along Which Standards Have Been Set for the Classification of High Schools" and "Standards for Accrediting Secondary Schools of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools."

The reader of the book will marvel at the great mass of factual data which Professor Koos has assembled, organized, and interpreted. The factual data are clearly and skilfully presented. Graphic presentation is resorted to when interpretation is facilitated thereby. Coupled with a descriptive statement of the factual material assembled is a clear-cut analytical treatment of the significant tendencies which the data indicate and a logical interpretation of their bearing on secondary-school problems. Bodies of data are skilfully organized, and conclusions are reached which are warranted by the facts at hand. The scientific manner in which the author has handled his problem and his consistency in avoiding dogmatic assertions make the book a model not only for writers in the field of education but also for writers in scientific fields.

The book should find great favor as a textbook for courses in secondary education in colleges, teachers' colleges, and universities. It should be read by laymen and educators who desire to gain a comprehensive view of the secondary school and its problems.

W. C. REAVIS

Better nutrition for children.—Material on the subject of nutrition work with children has accumulated rapidly, but it is usually written in technical language and is widely distributed among magazines and technical journals. A new textbook¹ brings this material together in the form of a survey, thus eliminating the difficulties which students have had in securing subject matter.

The first half of the book is devoted to the recognition of malnutrition, its causes, and its effects. The evidences of good and poor nutrition and their relation to sound health and good physical condition are thoroughly described, and excellent pictures to illustrate the main points are included. The author presents the results of studies to show the inadequacy of height and weight standards for detecting undernutrition and stresses the need of comparing children with optimal nutrition standards in order to discover all those who are in need

¹ Lydia J. Roberts, *Nutrition Work with Children*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1927. Pp. xiv+394. \$3.50.

of nutritional help. A chapter is devoted to height and weight studies since such studies have disclosed many important laws of growth. Following is a discussion of the causes of malnutrition, including a chart to summarize the interrelation. The chapter on the effects of malnutrition is especially interesting. That poor nutrition has positive physical effects has been firmly established. There have been fewer studies concerning the relation of undernutrition to mental development, but the contributions have been significant and suggestive of further research. The subject matter of each chapter is necessarily limited, but the bibliography gives additional references for those who are interested in a more detailed study of the subject.

As the title suggests, the book treats of all phases of the nutrition problem. Therefore, the second half of the book is devoted to a consideration of the prevention and treatment of malnutrition. The ideal method of reducing the high percentage of undernourished children is to improve the care of children during the parental, infant, and preschool periods. The immediate problem, however, is that of treating the children who are already in an undernourished condition. Although various agencies have undertaken this work, the one best suited to the task is the public school. Many valuable suggestions are offered for carrying on nutrition work as a part of the larger health program. Aims and methods of procedure, the part of the different workers, and special problems are discussed. A chapter very helpful to teachers is that on "Health Materials," which is followed by a selected list of materials with a brief description of each. Important chapters on "Nutrition Work with Preschool Children" and "Parental and Pre-Parental Education" are included.

The book is intended as a text and reference book for college students, but it will be useful to all who are working to improve the health of children. Certain chapters, such as those on the causes and effects of malnutrition and on the treatment of undernutrition, should help parents to understand the importance of health work in the school and the need of co-operation in the home.

AILSE M. STEVENSON

A study of differences in the intelligence of school children.—In Volume VII of the Harvard Studies in Education,¹ one of those made possible by a subvention from the Commonwealth Fund, Professor Wentworth makes a strong argument for the case method in the study of individual differences among school children.

The author has based her study on the data obtained from an examination of 1,001 school children in a suburb of Boston in 1922 and 1923. The first part of the study has to do with the investigation of correlations between the Dearborn test as given in 1922 and the Dearborn test as given in 1923, between the Dearborn test and the Stanford-Binet individual tests, and between the Stanford-Binet tests and retests.

¹ Mary M. Wentworth, *Individual Differences in the Intelligence of School Children*. Harvard Studies in Education, Volume VII. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1926. Pp. 162. \$2.00.

The statistics show a relative stability in the I.Q. as a whole. The distribution follows the Gaussian curve of probability very closely. Even when the pupils are divided into smaller groups on the basis of sex, parentage, chronological age, etc., the "fit" of the curve is not altered appreciably. All correlations are found to be high. The reliability of the Stanford-Binet test is found to have a probable error of not more than three months of mental age. The intercorrelations show the need of both group and individual tests in dealing with children. Such items as the influence of the racial factor, sex influence, and anatomical development are pointed out and discussed.

The author discusses the factors in testing which produce variability and points out the need of careful evaluation of the results of psychological tests. From a study of the results of the Stanford-Binet retests, the causes of failure after previous success, the causes of success after previous failure, and the causes of failure after previous failure, suggestions are given as to revision and placement of certain tests. The changes in I.Q. on Dearborn retests are discussed, and the author shows the unreliability of a single I.Q. whether based on a group test or on an individual test. "Intelligence tests do not measure much that we have to learn and understand about a child. No one test is ever final. But with a series of tests, accompanied by an individual study of the child from all angles, physical, emotional, and social, sidelights are thrown upon the character which help in diagnosis and in guidance" (pp. 47-48). To be significant, tests must be interpreted qualitatively and quantitatively.

One of the most valuable and interesting parts of the book is that devoted to 112 individual case studies, in which the cases are grouped in eight separate classes. For example, there are sixteen pairs of twins, eleven superior children, and eleven psychopathic or neurotic children. The tables accompanying these studies and the comments on the individual differences discovered are illuminating and interesting. The importance of a study of the whole personality of the child is clearly shown. A low I.Q. does not necessarily prophesy failure nor a high I.Q. insure success. "Emotional and environmental influences often affect the expression of intelligence, even if they do not affect intelligence itself" (p. 158).

The study is a valuable contribution to the literature of intelligence testing and the uses of intelligence tests. It gives a working technique in the critical study of the child by the case-study method.

VERGIL C. LOHR

A survey of five small high schools.—Although the median high school in the United States enrolls probably less than eighty pupils, most of the literature dealing with high-school administration is still concerned chiefly with the problems of large schools. Hence, a recently published report¹ of conditions in five village high schools in Pennsylvania will be welcomed by students of secondary education.

¹ John Rufi, *The Small High School*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 236. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1926. Pp. x+146. \$1.50.

The survey reported was a first-hand study of schools with enrolments of from twelve to fifty-four pupils. The range in population of the villages in which they were situated was from about two hundred to twelve hundred. The communities were fortunate in having no racial or foreign-language problems; in several other important respects the schools surveyed appear to have been operating under favorable conditions.

Careful study, however, revealed the presence in the schools of so many defects and weaknesses that the investigator concluded that the boys and girls were not receiving "a square deal educationally." Uneconomical administration of finances, poorly equipped buildings, overworked and inefficient teachers, poorly balanced curriculums, and the general absence of extra-curriculum activities were some of the factors militating against educational success in these schools. The published report contains fifty-nine tables, which present an abundance of statistical data supporting the adverse conclusions of the author.

The author maintains that there is no evidence to prove or disprove the general charge of inefficiency frequently leveled at the small rural or village high school. However, "while generalizations are to be studiously avoided, it is not too much to say that this study gives additional reasons for seriously questioning the value and the efficiency of the small high school in general. It clearly shows the need for further study and educational investigation of this very important part of our educational system" (p. 141).

DAVID GUSTAFSON

The junior college.—For some time movements have been under way to improve our system of education. Efforts at reorganization were first directed toward the elementary school, the most universal of our educational institutions. In recent years, however, the increased enrolment in the secondary school and the change in the type of pupils enrolled have made demands on that institution which have not been met by the prevailing curriculum. Much has accordingly been done to bring about changes at that level. The criticisms which were the opening wedges for the reorganization of education at the lower levels are now directed against the college.

A recent contribution to the growing literature in the college field¹ traces the procedure followed in attempting to inaugurate a "modernized" program in a present-day college and indicates the outstanding difficulties met. The book pertains particularly to the junior college and is based on experiences at the Randolph-Macon Woman's College. The function of the junior college is conceived to be the extension of "general" education beyond the secondary-school level without attempts at specialization. In chapter ii, "Faculty 'Protection' vs. Student Benefit," an attack is made on the exponents of the traditional college program, which indicates the opposition offered to the aims set up in the college in question. Certain departments were opposed to the giving of the "modernized" courses scheduled for them; this opposition led to the setting up of

¹ A. Monroe Stowe, *Modernizing the College*. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1926. Pp. xviii+126.

"group requirements," which later proved to contribute little toward achieving the college aims. This plan necessitated the abandonment of aims or the modification of requirements and resulted in a trial of "free election," which the author treats in the chapter entitled, "Shifting Responsibility from Faculty to Students." The heavy registration in social science and the registration in advanced courses without adequate preparation under "free election" brought a return to a policy of limited requirements.

In the chapter on "A Humanized Junior College Curriculum" the author discusses the plan of instruction by which the school under consideration hoped to achieve the six objectives which it set up. In chapter v, "The Handicap of Academic Traditionalism," an attack is made on the "faculty meeting" as the "hot-bed of traditionalism." Board representation at faculty meetings is felt to be as important as faculty representation at board meetings. The idea of board participation in formulating educational policy is carried over into the last chapter, "The American College of To-Morrow." Here it is also suggested that the arts college devotes too much attention to fitting students for graduate work at the expense of orienting them in society or of preparing them for other than academic pursuits. In Appendix A summary statements are presented which reflect the attitudes of boards of trustees toward a formulation of "purposes and objectives" for an arts college. The suggestion is made that trustees have commonly left the statement of objectives to the faculty and have not given much thought to the matter themselves. Appendix B similarly treats the attitudes of college presidents toward the same general question.

The experiment reported represents a rather distinct break from what has been considered the proper field for the arts college. Not all the things attempted have proved successful, but there is undoubtedly a valuable residuum, which will stimulate further effort both at the Randolph-Macon Woman's College and elsewhere. Students of higher education will find the book very interesting while those especially concerned with the junior-college curriculum or administration should find it stimulating and suggestive.

HAROLD H. PUNKE

A treatment of the junior high school.—The junior high school has won a place for itself in the American plan of public education. It is a separate educational institution, whose limits are established by the peculiar physical, mental, and social needs of adolescent boys and girls. It provides the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades with enlarged curriculums, enriched subject matter, and specialized instruction on the departmental plan. The belief that character-building is attained through participation in real social situations has led to the provision of a rich program of extra-curriculum activities, which includes athletics, dramatics, music, student council, clubs, and other pupil activities.

One of the earlier treatises on the junior high school has been revised.¹ The

¹ C. Vernon Bennett, *The Junior High School*. Baltimore: Warwick & York, Inc., 1926 [revised]. Pp. 226.

first half of the book treats the historical development of the junior high school and the relationships which this school is developing with other educational agencies. The student of education should read chapter iii, which is a good summary of the attitudes and offerings of departments of education in colleges, of publishing companies, and of many of the better junior high school centers.

In the last half of the book the author treats materials which are worth much to those actually engaged in junior high school work. What shall be taught in the junior high school? How shall specific subjects be taught? What shall be the length of the class periods? How are programs made? What extra-curriculum activities shall be introduced? How shall problems of conduct and social training be handled? Actual courses of study and programs are introduced to show how some schools are meeting their problems. The relationships of teacher and pupil; principal and teacher; and supervisor, teacher, and principal are discussed from the point of view of the experienced administrator. Each of the courses of study common to most junior high school programs of study is discussed at length. One fact stands out, namely, that the school experiences of children in the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades have been greatly enriched by the introduction of new material in the old subjects and by the provision of new subjects. Along with the enrichment of the subject matter has come the privilege of election at an earlier age, chiefly in the ninth grade. The purposes of the enlarged experiences are to stimulate pupils to acquire habits of industry, to exercise sense perception, to acquire motor skill, to conserve health and promote normal physical development, to acquire a fund of information which will make them intelligent about the everyday affairs of life, to develop skill of expression and a liking for clean and wholesome pleasures, and, finally, to acquire some philosophy of the purposefulness of life. Teaching methods have been modified to assist children to reach these goals.

The latter part of the book especially should be read by teachers and supervisors because it brings together the recent progressive movements in the secondary-school field. The lay reader who wants to understand the purposes and plans which form the background of the junior high school will have no difficulty in following the discussion. While the author is scientific in his method of handling the assembled data, the book is written in a simple, direct style, which will appeal to the average reader.

EVERETT DAVIS

WOODROW WILSON JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL
DES MOINES, IOWA

The junior high school and the social studies.—That the junior high school offers the best opportunity for curriculum revision appears to be generally conceded by present-day educators. The consideration of problems of curriculum revision has become common in books on method, and the author of a recent book¹ on history and other social studies has followed general practice by de-

¹ Daniel C. Knowlton, *History and the Other Social Studies in the Junior High School*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1926. Pp. iv+210.

voting two chapters out of eight to a direct treatment of curriculum-making in history. Although but two chapters are directly concerned with the problem of revision, the other six chapters include many questions and subjects which were doubtless inspired by interest in this problem.

The author presents a record of his classroom experiences during the last six years and interprets these experiences on the basis of what actually happened. He states: "This book has been written from the point of view of the classroom, for in the final analysis this is the proving-ground for every educational theory, and its essential soundness is measured by the extent to which it finds expression there and makes for better teaching" (p. iii). The attitude of the author toward the junior high school is indicated by the following statement, which appears in the last chapter: "The work here looks both forward and backward. First of all, there must be successful contacts made with what has gone before. At the same time the teacher must bridge a real gap . . . one of the most difficult in the social life of the child. Finally, this work must anticipate and look forward to the years just ahead" (p. 192).

The following chapter titles are indicative of the content of the book: "Tools and the Work Room in History," "Stating the Problem," "The Use of the Concrete," "The Class Session," "Outcomes and Tests of Progress," and "Geography and Civics." An epilogue, in which the tasks and responsibilities of the teacher are considered, appears at the end of the book.

A unique feature is the evaluated bibliography at the end of each chapter. In addition to listing the best publications pertaining to the subject he is discussing, Professor Knowlton tells the interesting characteristics of each. The materials of the *Historical Outlook* evidently have been carefully reviewed by the author. Each chapter is filled with numerous additional suggestions for teaching which have as a primary concern appealing presentation of materials to the pupils. The first questioning impressions which are formed by the pupil and the later more mature understanding of historical movements and unit elements are evidently recognized by the author, for the "suggestions for teaching" show evidence of a consideration of the normal progress which is made during the course of a year's study and of the individual differences of pupils. The last three chapters are statements and evaluations of the various methods proposed for the handling of classroom material. In these concluding chapters only material that is selected on the basis of an understanding of the true purposes of the junior high school is included; consequently, the reader is brought in contact with not only a valuable review of methods on the junior high school level but also the newer type of material which is best fitted for the work.

Professor Knowlton is not dogmatic when he states in the Preface that the junior high school is in its infancy and that "what it may be does not altogether appear from what it now is." On the whole, the text is an admirable treatise on the teaching of social science in its relation to the junior high school movement.

ROBERT B. WEAVER

Health supervision.—Within recent years there has been increasing interest in the problem of the health supervision of school children. It has been realized that, because of the intimate contacts of the children in the schools, there is opened an easy path for the spread of communicable diseases. In addition, medical inspection provides an opportunity for the discovery and correction of the great mass of major and minor physical defects which handicap the pupil in mental and physical growth and development. Modern school health work has availed itself of the progress which has been made in the fields of both medicine and education. As a result, much has been added to the traditional program of medical inspection. Examinations are more thorough, in many instances including, in addition to the routine physical inspection, urine and blood examinations, metabolic tests, anthropometric measurements, and the exact measurement of deficiencies in sight and hearing.

A recent book¹ presents a summation of the best methods used in the schools throughout the country in carrying out programs of health supervision. The book gives a thoroughly practical and comprehensive system. The procedures recommended are those which are best adapted to bringing to the pupil the maximum of health, physical well-being, and healthful surroundings. The examinations necessary to determine the health and physical status of the child are discussed, and the duties of the physician, nurse, and teacher in giving them are stressed. The provisions needed for the handling of the defective child are also dealt with in a thorough manner.

In some instances, as in the chapters on mental and social hygiene and mental tests, the authors have restricted their treatment to the bare essentials. However, they have done much to show the many sides to the problem of health supervision in the school and have discussed almost every phase of it to some extent. At times they are at fault in presenting their material without drawing any definite conclusions from it.

The book will be of value to all who are concerned with the health of the child in the school—physicians, nurses, administrative officers, teachers, and mothers. It might serve as a useful textbook for those engaged in the teaching of school hygiene and sanitation.

WILLIAM I. FISHBEIN

Exercises in composition and grammar.—Although the number of textbooks in composition and grammar has increased very rapidly in the last few years, the majority of them remain much alike in content, organization, and presentation. A recent textbook² is unique in the way it combines a review of the essentials and practice in composition.

¹ Thomas D. Wood and Hugh Grant Rowell, *Health Supervision and Medical Inspection of Schools*. Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Co., 1927. Pp. 638. \$7.50.

² C. H. Ward, *M.O.S. Book: A Text Designed To "Maintain the Skills" of Composition Learned in the Earlier Years*. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1926. Pp. 216. \$0.60.

The author does not aim to teach the elements of composition. The teachers throughout the grades and the first two years of the high school endeavor to establish the right habits in the use of the fundamentals of composition—grammar, punctuation, spelling, and sentence structure. In the third and fourth years of the high school these matters are often dropped while the teacher and the class leave behind them the drudgery of foundation work and soar into the heights of rhetorical fluency. The fact that errors continue to occur is regarded as a sad perversity of adolescent intellect. The *M.O.S. Book* aims to maintain the skills acquired in the early years by providing the opportunity for practice in dealing with the elements of language.

The book is divided into eight sections devoted to a review of the fundamentals: "Grammar Review"; "Grammatical Decency," which treats the formation of the past tenses, perfect participles, and such common errors as dangling verbals; "Sentence Errors," which deals with the errors caused by the failure to recognize a sentence; "Punctuation"; "Varied and Pleasing Sentences," which aims to improve sentence structure; "Spelling"; "Material for Class Work in Grammar"; and "Recognizing Common Errors in Grammar, Idiom, and Sentence Structure."

The first five sections are accompanied by 170 exercise sheets containing particular types of errors for the pupil to correct. The exercise sheets are perforated so that they may be torn from the book and handed to the teacher for marking. This is a distinct advantage because it saves much time and energy on the part of both pupil and teacher.

The exercise sheets are obviously an accumulation of many sentences, uninteresting in themselves, which have been gathered from many sources for the sole purpose of providing drill material for the elimination of particular kinds of errors. This type of book disregards the fact that composition naturally exists for the expression of ideas and that the maintenance of correct language habits is therefore most advantageously and economically accomplished by insisting on correct usage in all written work, whether history, science, or English. There must be close co-operation between all the departments if the work of the English department is to be successful. However, where co-operation does not exist, the *M.O.S. Book* may be found very useful for the purpose for which it was prepared.

CAROLINE GARBE

A general biology.—*An Introduction to Biology*¹ reflects the whole-hearted interest and enthusiasm of a scientist for his work. Much of it is of compelling interest for mature students of biology, and few such can read it without gathering new knowledge, new ideas, and new enthusiasm for their chosen field of work. For the beginning student it is an appealing first view of a new field and a guide for its exploration.

¹ Alfred C. Kinsey, *An Introduction to Biology*. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1926. Pp. xiv+558.

The author has sought to give a preview of biology by introducing the reader to the great divisions of biological study and by showing him both the great principles which each has contributed to the whole and the interests which control the workers in the field.

The table of contents shows a division into general parts, but this division is not emphasized in the body of the text. There are introductory chapters, concluding chapters, and groups of chapters dealing with the fields of "Taxonomy," "Morphology," "Physiology," "Genetics," "Ecology," "Distributional Biology," and "Behavior." The treatment in the individual chapters is neither as limited nor as technical as the headings would indicate. The book gives much space to "Ecology" and reflects an ecological interest throughout. Unusual material for such a text is presented in the chapters on "Taxonomists as Explorers," "Epidemics," "Galls and Gall Insects," "Fresh-Water Biology," and "Scientific Method" and in the entire sections on "Distributional Biology" and "Behavior." Some of the chapters reflect the author's personal interests in research.

The text gives more space to animals than to plants. The author says that this is "chiefly because we ourselves are not plant but animal organisms and because the phenomena of instinctive and intelligent behaviors are as peculiar to the animal kingdom as photosynthesis is to green plants" (p. v).

No class should attempt to cover thoroughly all the material presented in the text. It is, however, so arranged that a number of chapters may be omitted without loss of unity. These might well be assigned as supplementary reading.

In mechanical makeup, the book is attractive and well planned. The illustrations are plentiful and new; in almost every case they add something not given in the discussion. In addition to the descriptive titles, a line in very small type often calls attention to the outstanding feature of the picture or relates it to the discussion.

J. C. MAYFIELD

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- ENGELHARDT, FRED, and VON BORGERSDRODE, FRED. *Accounting Procedure for School Systems*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927. Pp. xii+130.

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